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# THE EDITOR'S COLUMN

## LES PROPOS DE LA REDACTION

1. The Council of the Association in latest meeting, at Helsinki, has kindly agreed to the proposal of the Secretary of the Association that he should be relieved of the editorship of the Bulletin and Mr. Gerard Tison be entrusted with it.

The new editor applied himself at once to his duties and now offers you the first issue to be prepared by him.

2. He has noted that in that same meeting of the Council certain steps were taken to help him in his task. He has seen with satisfaction the arrangements made to secure wider diffusion of the Bulletin, to give increased standing by virtue of a regular supply of first-class scientific articles and to improve its budgetary position by getting more for advertisements in it.

The editor will be pleased to receive from each adherent country the name of the individual charged with attending to these general matters.

3. The present issue already bears witness of such help, which comes particularly from our American, Dutch and Italian friends. It is in this way that five articles have reached us from the U.S.A. and that Monsieur Gherardelli has agreed that the paper which he had been a little late in sending from Helsinki should be published in the Bulletin. We are delighted to reap this harvest which will provide the Bulletin with a notable development of its scientific portion.

4. The attention of the reader is drawn particularly to the account of the meetings of the Arid Zones Committee of Unesco held at Paris in May last, as well as to the results of the symposium held on this occasion.

1. Le Conseil de l'Association, dans sa dernière réunion à Helsinki, a bien voulu accepter une proposition du Secrétaire de l'Association de le décharger de la Rédaction du Bulletin et d'en charger Monsieur Gérard Tison.

Le nouveau rédacteur s'est mis immédiatement à la besogne et il vous présente aujourd'hui son premier bulletin.

2. La rédaction note également avec satisfaction que lors de la même réunion du Conseil, certaines mesures ont été prises pour l'aider dans sa tâche. Elle voit avec satisfaction les mesures prises pour assurer une diffusion plus large du bulletin, pour lui donner un standing plus élevé en l'alimentant régulièrement en communications scientifiques de premier ordre et pour soulager son budget en lui procurant de la publicité.

La rédaction sera heureuse de recevoir, pour chaque pays adhérent, le nom du responsable chargé de veiller à ces différents points.

3. Le présent document porte déjà la marque de cette aide, venant particulièrement de nos amis américains, hollandais et italiens. C'est ainsi que cinq études nous sont parvenues de U.S.A. et que Monsieur Gherardelli a accepté que son étude qu'il avait envoyée peu tardivement pour Helsinki soit publiée dans le bulletin. Nous nous réjouissons de ces apports qui vont donner au bulletin une partie scientifique spécialement développée.

4. D'autre part, l'attention du lecteur est particulièrement attirée sur un compte-rendu des réunions du Comité des Zones Arides de l'Unesco tenues à Paris en mai dernier, ainsi que sur les indications relatives

The discussions were of prime importance for future activity in the interests of arid zones. The Secretary of your Association wishes to give this Committee all possible support and to ensure a collaboration which cannot but be most useful for both bodies concerned.

5. As an instance of this collaboration there was arranged for Helsinki the symposium on Groundwater Maps and another on Droughts and Low Flows. They achieved a great success. Another symposium is being arranged, on Groundwater Resources in Arid Zones, under the same conditions. The present issue gives the first details of it.

6. In assuming charge of the publication of the Bulletin, the new editor wonders if this is not a somewhat heavy burden for one so young. He has, however, not hesitated to accept it for he knows that he can count on the counsels and support of all those who direct or have directed the Association and of all those others who share in its life.

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au Colloque tenu à l'occasion de ces réunions. Ces délibérations sont d'une importance mondiale pour l'action future en faveur des Zones Arides. Le Secrétaire de votre Association désire apporter à ce Comité tout soutien possible et assurer une collaboration qui ne peut être que des plus utiles aux organismes.

5. A Helsinki, le colloque sur les Cartes des Eaux Souterraines et celui sur les Sécheresses et Débits de Base furent organisés comme suite à cette collaboration. Ils connurent un grand succès. Un autre Colloque se prépare sur les Ressources en Eaux Souterraines dans les Zones Arides, dans les mêmes conditions. Le présent bulletin donne les premières indications à ce sujet.

6. En reprenant la charge de la publication du bulletin, le nouveau rédacteur demande si elle n'est pas un peu lourde pour sa jeunesse. Il n'a cependant pas hésité à reprendre car il sait pouvoir compter sur les conseils et l'appui de ceux qui dirigent l'Association et de tous ceux qui y participent à sa vie.



# PARTIE SCIENTIFIQUE

## SCIENTIFIC PART

### REAL FLOOD-FREQUENCY ANALYSIS IN A HUMID REGION <sup>(1)</sup>

M.A. BENSON

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tract

This study was made to define the relation between floods in a humid region and the active factors that account for their variability. The study covered the basic relationships between peak discharges and hydrologic factors as well as the practical working methods for realizing the results on a regional basis. Statistical multiple-correlation techniques were used to hydrologic data in New England. A field and library investigation of historical flood data extended the period of flood knowledge to as much as 300 years. The relation of many topographic and climatic factors to flood peaks was tested. Flood peaks with recurrence intervals at 9 levels, from 1.2 to 300 years, were related to 6 independent variables, 3 of which are topographic, 2 climatic, and 1 orographic.

#### INTRODUCTION

The investigation described here was made as part of a continuing study to determine the cause of variation in flood peaks from place to place and to improve methods of defining flood-frequency relations on a generalized basis.

The measuring of discharge at about 7,000 stream-gaging stations in the United States is a sampling process in both time and space. The 25- or 50-year record of floods that may be available at a station is only a sample in time of the total experience of floods there. The experience at the 7,000 gaging sites comprises only a sample in space of the flood potential of the infinite number of possible sites on all the streams in the country.

All the flood data available must be used to describe the variation with time and to analyze the causes for the variation with location. The spatial variation in flood experience must be related to the hydrologic factors that cause the variation. The hydrologic factors may be divided into two principal classes — topographic, and climatic. The climatic factors are chiefly those that account for the variation in the supply of water causing floods. The topographic factors are those physical characteristics of the drainage basin that affect the pattern of the runoff and the size of peaks.

<sup>1)</sup> Publication authorized by Director, U.S. Geological Survey.

## CHOICE OF STUDY REGION

The chances of success were considered better if the study were started in some region within which the climatic variations and variations in runoff were not extreme, pointed to a humid region. Other requirements were that the region have fairly long records and be fully mapped. New England seemed to meet the requirements better than other area.

## METHODS OF ANALYZING FLOODS

Technical literature on the subject of flood frequency has been concerned mainly the distribution of floods at a single site. This has been a controversial subject, although not the most important part of the general problem of determining flood-frequency relations. Defining the frequency curves at individual sites, by whatever means, is only the first part of the job; generalization has not been accomplished until the flood peak data are related to hydrologic factors.

It is necessary to start, however, by defining the flood-frequency distribution or curve at each individual site where flood data are available. There are many theories and many methods of doing this. The methods may be divided primarily into mathematical and graphical. A decision on procedure had to be made here. It was decided to use graphical methods of producing frequency curves at individual stations. The chief reason for this was that basic hydrologic relationships as yet unknown were being investigated; it was desirable that the results not be affected by any possible bias introduced by assuming a theoretical distribution. It is not yet possible to demonstrate *a priori* that floods must conform to some one type of distribution. It is also difficult to justify any distribution on empirical grounds, because although it is easy to show a fit between theory and data in the region of the mean, it is hard to do so at the extremes; this is the region of interest for floods. Graphical methods may vary slightly with the method of doing the work, but the results of careful work do not have a built-in bias.

One method currently in use for regionalizing flood frequency is to use an index flood, usually the mean annual peak discharge. All other floods at a station are then expressed as a ratio to the mean annual flood. The dimensionless ratios are then combined for all stations within a homogeneous area, to obtain a generalized basic flood-frequency relation in terms of ratio to the mean annual flood. This method places some restriction on the results because it does not allow for the possibility that the ratio of a given flood, say the 10-year flood, to the mean may not be constant at all stations, but may vary with physical or climatic conditions prevailing over each basin. In order to avoid any restrictions on the relations that might be developed, it was considered best to make independent analyses at many different flood levels.

## ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

The available stream-gaging records in New England were examined and those that were too short, too close to another station, or affected excessively by regulation were eliminated. There still remained 164 stations to use in the analysis. One of the first parts of the study was an investigation of historical flood data in New England, which extended the known flood events back between 200 and 300 years.

Maximum annual momentary peak discharges were listed for each station, and were arranged in order of magnitude. Probabilities for each peak were computed as  $m/n$ , where  $m$  is the rank starting with one as the highest and  $n$  is the number of years of record. Where the historical study indicated long effective recurrence intervals for some of the major floods, the longer periods of time, rather than the recent periods of record, were used to compute their probabilities.



The peaks at each station were plotted on log-probability graph paper, and graphical frequency curves were drawn. Each curve was drawn only as high as defined by the data at the station. From the 164 station frequency curves, peak discharges were determined, within the limits of each curve, at the probabilities corresponding to recurrence intervals of 1.2, 2.33, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 200, and 300 years. Table 1 shows the amount of data at each of the 9 levels.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF STATIONS DEFINING T-YEAR FLOODS

Recurrence Interval, T, in years	Number of Stations
1.2	164
2.33	164
5	164
10	164
25	154
50	116
100	100
200	68
300	22

At each of these levels, the peak discharges, as dependent variables, were correlated by multiple-correlation techniques with many hydrologic variables. These variables were chosen by considering what factors might be expected to have an important effect on peak discharge, and by finding means of expressing them either directly or indirectly by some suitable index. The following list (table 2) shows the variables investigated.

Some of the variables listed in Table 2 have been described and evaluated for many New England drainage basins by *Langbein* (1947). Other variables, such as indices for the main-channel slope, curvature of the main-channel profile, and the altitude distribution, were devised in the course of this study.

In the first part of the investigation, graphical multiple-correlation techniques were used. It was found that linear relationships existed between peak discharges and all hydrologic factors when the logarithms of all the data were used. Various indices of each of the factors suspected to influence flood were tested for their efficiency in accounting for the variations in peak discharges. Drainage-area size, considered and later demonstrated to be of prime importance, was introduced first. Some measure of the main-channel slope was found to be next in importance to drainage area. Several methods for expressing main-channel slope were tested and finally a simple yet efficient index (Benson, 1959) was devised. This is the slope (in feet per mile) between two points along the main channel, one of which is 85 percent, the other 10 percent, of the total main-channel length above the gaging point.

Following main-channel slope,  $S$ , the percentage of surface area in lakes and ponds, increased by 0.5 percent for linearization),  $Sr$ , was found to be a significant variable.

A fourth independent variable found significant was  $I$ , the rainfall intensity-frequency magnitude (in inches) for a 24-hour duration and a recurrence interval equal to that of the peak discharge. These data were obtained by use of U.S. Weather Bureau Technical Paper No 29, Rainfall intensity-frequency regime, Part 4 — Northeastern United States, 1959.

TABLE 2

## INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ANALYZED

1. Drainage-area size
2. Slope
  - Main-channel :  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Langbein factor} \\ \text{Bigwood-Thomas factor} \\ \text{Potter factor} \\ \text{Logarithmic} \\ \text{85-10\% point elevations} \end{array} \right.$
  - Tributary channel
  - Average land slope
  - Profile curvature
3. Storage area
  - Lakes, ponds, and swamps
  - Lakes and ponds
4. Stream density
5. Altitude
  - Mean
  - Mean above gage
  - Altitude distribution index
6. Shape and drainage pattern
  - $L, 1/W, L/W, \Sigma al, (\Sigma al)/A, L, \text{Log } A,$
  - Shape classification (1 to 6)
7. Index of available moisture
  - Mean annual precipitation
  - Mean annual runoff
  - Mean March to May precipitation
  - Mean annual runoff/precipitation ratio
  - Mean March to May runoff/precipitation ratio
  - Maximum 24-hour precipitation
  - Rainfall intensity-frequency
8. Temperature
  - Mean January temperature
  - Mean January degrees below freezing
9. Orographic factor

Graphical multiple correlation becomes insensitive after 3 or 4 variables. At this point multiple-correlation equations were computed mathematically at all 9 of the flood levels, values of the flood peaks were computed, by means of the equations, for all stations. ratios of the actual to the computed peaks were averaged at each station, and those representing error or departures, were then plotted on a map of New England (Fig. 1).

The multiple correlation developed to this point would not be considered satisfac

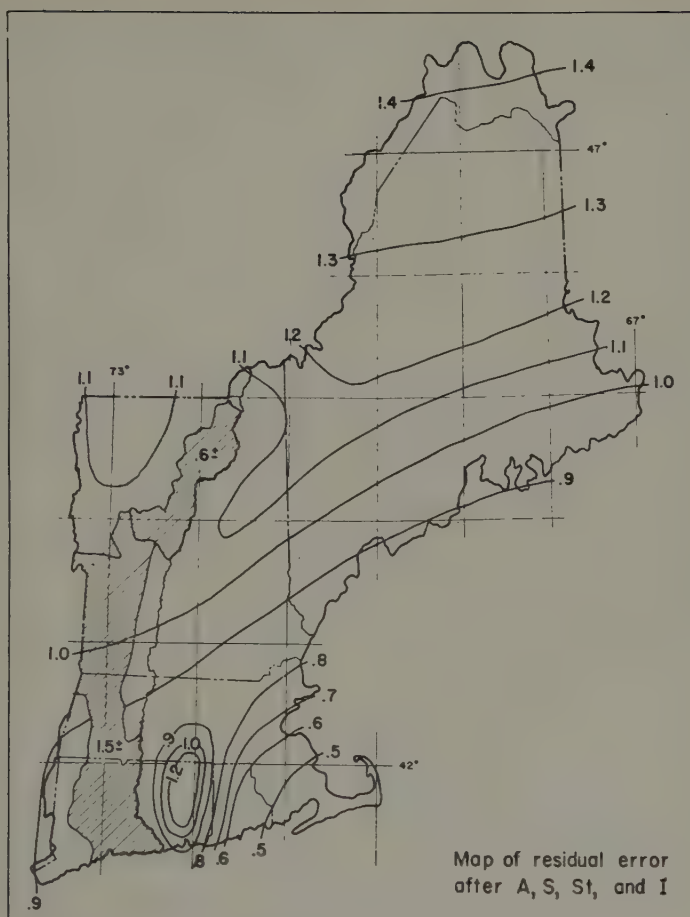


Fig. 1 — Map of residual error after  $A$ ,  $S$ ,  $S_t$ , and  $I$

less, as a minimum requirement, the errors were found to be randomly distributed. In figure 1 the contours have been drawn to average the departures. They demonstrate a definite geographic pattern. Note that the ratios are high in the north (above 1) and change gradually to low values (below 1) in the south. An area along the Connecticut River shows a break in the regular pattern. The general north-to-south variation is consistent with the expected effect of one factor not yet included in the correlation — the effect of snowmelt and frozen ground augmenting peak flows. The general pattern of departures is almost duplicated in the map of mean January temperature shown in figure 2.

Most annual flood peaks in New England occur in the three-month period from March through May. The ratio of total runoff over total precipitation in the March-to-May period is shown by contours in Figure 3. The north-to-south variation is depicted here also. North of the line labelled 1.0, the runoff is higher than the precipitation during these three months, because of the melting of snow previously accumulated.



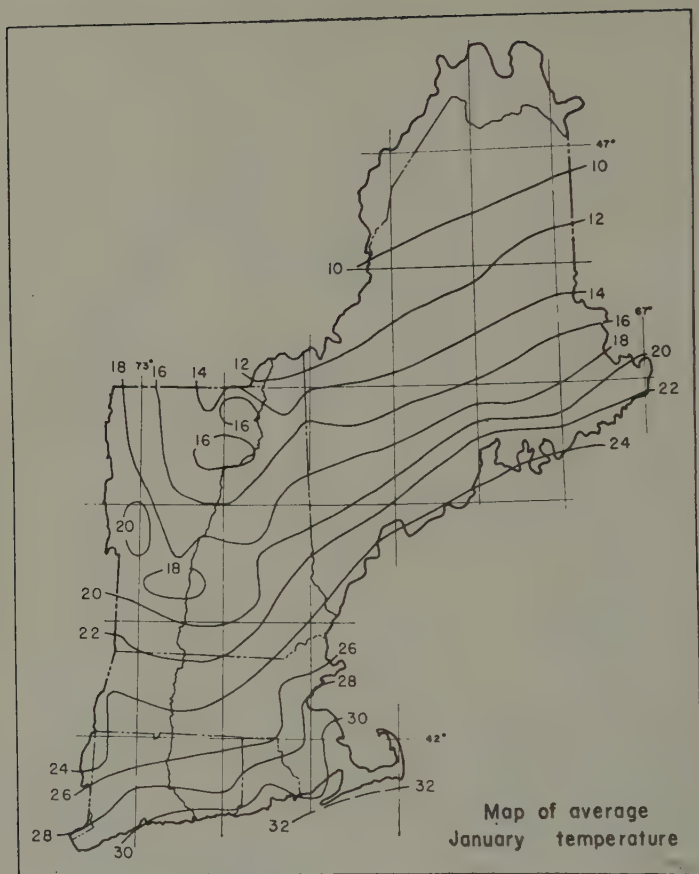


Fig. 2 — Map of mean January temperature

Data on the normal water content of accumulated snow at the time of the spring breakups are lacking, but either January temperature or the 3-month runoff-precipitation ratio may be used as an index of snowmelt. Average January temperature was chosen, and was converted to average degrees below freezing,  $t$ , (with a minimum value of 1.0). After adding this variable to the regression equations, flood peaks were recomputed and another set of residual errors obtained that were again mapped as shown in figure 4.

Maine is omitted from this map, and the remainder expanded. The introduction of temperature eliminates the north-to-south variation and gives a random scatter of errors everywhere except along the Connecticut River. Examination of the pattern now defined by the residual errors shows a definite relation to orography. Storm winds come mainly from the east or southeast. The area of depression contours in the north is a basin flanked on the east by the White Mountain chain, the highest in New England. West of the northern part of the White Mountain there is a definite rain shadow, perhaps better termed a « peak-discharge shadow ». South about the  $43^{\circ}45'$  latitude, the White Mountains become low; the Green Mountains, which form the western ridge of the Connecticut Valley, are the highest in the east-west direction and

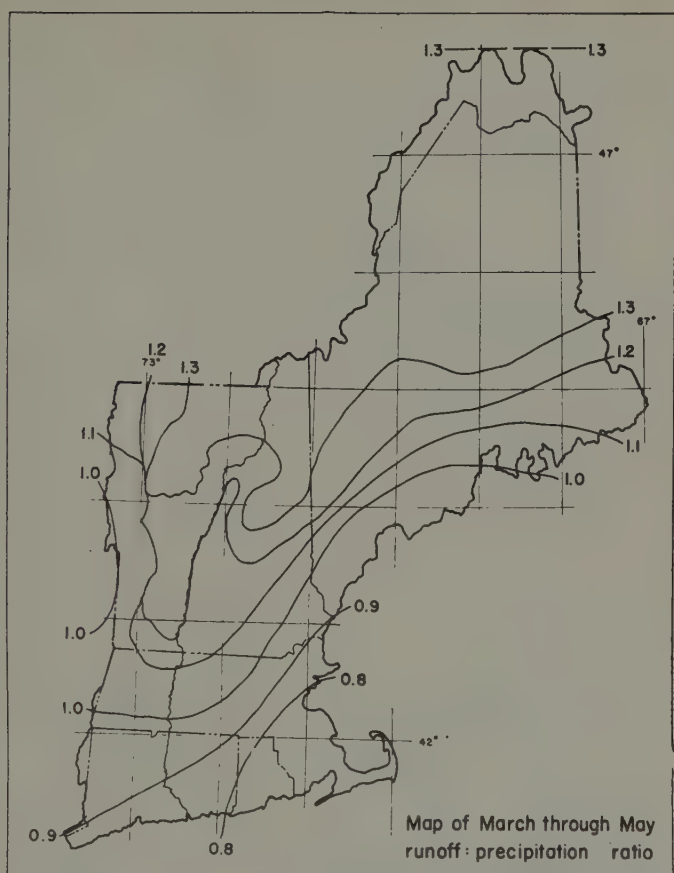


Fig. 3 — Map of runoff/precipitation ratio, March through May

become the controlling feature. The residual errors of the individual gaging stations show an increase up the slopes on the east side of the Green Mountains. As we progress southward to western Massachusetts and to Connecticut, which receive the highest storm rains in New England, the mountains have become hills. The first rise in elevation met by the winds from the east causes an increase in peak discharges; proceeding west into the Connecticut Valley, there is a decrease, then a rise on the other side. Figure 5 shows what happens along the 42° 15' line; the top line is the ground elevation and the lower line is the pattern of residuals.

The pattern portrayed in figure 4 represents variations in peaks that are unaccounted for by the precipitation and temperature variables already used. Perhaps the precipitation or temperature maps are based on too little data in the mountain areas or perhaps the orographic effect on peaks is too complex to be expressed by one or two simple climatic indices. One practical expedient for expressing the effect of orography would be to use, as an orographic factor, values based on the contours of figure 4, which are consistently defined by the residuals of flood discharge at each station. The discharges are from entire basins, therefore they represent the integrated effect of whatever conditions are responsible for the pattern. When an orographic

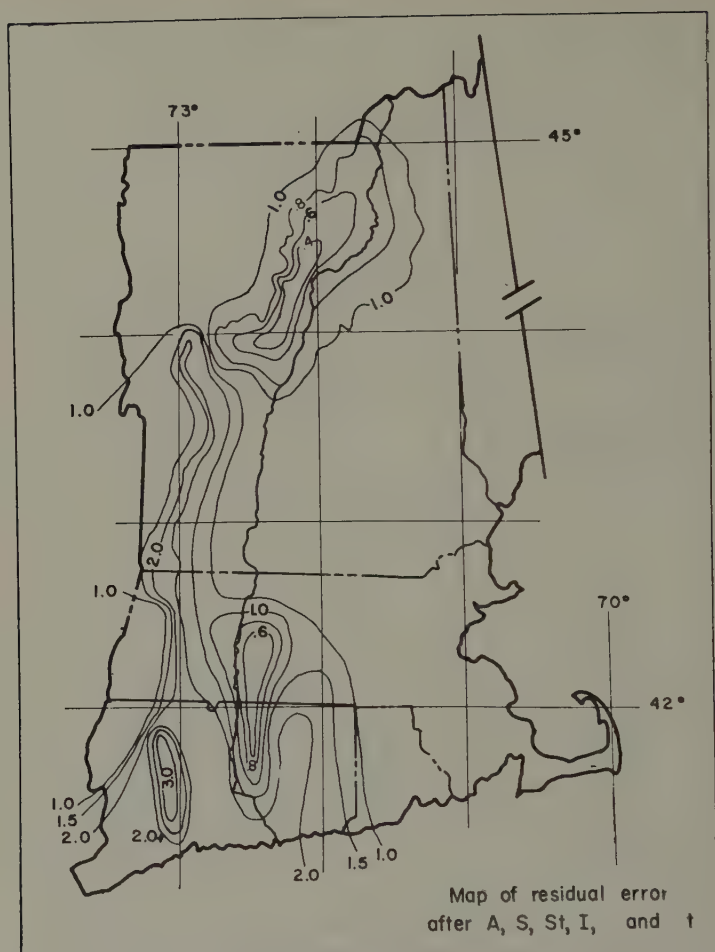


Fig. 4 — Map of residual error after  $A$ ,  $S$ ,  $St$ ,  $I$ , and  $t$

factor,  $O$ , based on the mapped contours, is introduced into the regression equations, the final residuals are then found to be randomly scattered over all of New England.

It would have been possible to use other variables of those investigated instead of the one finally used. For example, average land slope, stream density, or others might have been used instead of main-channel slope. Each of these is highly correlated with the others. However, the main-channel slope proved to be the most efficient of these, i.e., it accounted for a large part of the variation in peak discharges. After main-channel slope was introduced as a variable, the other like variables no longer added anything significant to the correlation.

No basin shape factor could be found that had any significant relation to flood peak despite the fact that reasoning shows that shape must have an effect. Apparently, the basin shape has to a large extent been accounted for once drainage area and slope have been included. This is because slope is computed on basis of the length of the main channel — for a given size of drainage area a variation in main-channel length indicates a variation in shape.



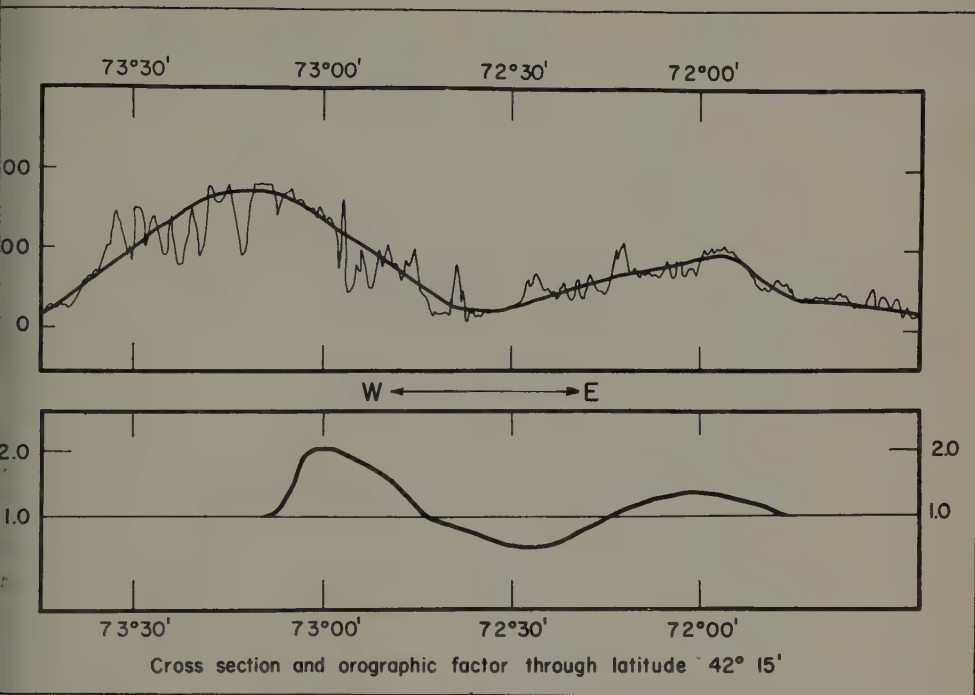


Fig. 5 — Cross section and orographic factor through latitude 42° 15'

ULTS

multiple-correlation equations which have been developed are of the following form :

$$Q_T = a A^b S^c S t^d I^e t f O^g$$

There are six independent variables. The first three — area, main-channel slope, and base storage — are topographic variables. The next two, precipitation intensity and temperature, are climatic variables. The last is an orographic factor, a combination of topography and climate.

Drainage area is the most important variable. The standard deviation of the original peak discharges range between 130 and 190 percent (average of plus and minus deviations) of the mean values at each level. The use of drainage area leads to standard errors ranging only from 10 to 70 percent. Slope is highly important and it accounts for a 10 to 20 percent reduction in standard error over that using area alone. Storage further improves the standard error between 2 and 5 percent. Rainfall intensity is not statistically significant below about 10 years; above 10 years the improvement in standard error ranges up to 3 percent. Temperature improves standard error between 1 and 4 percent. The orographic factor improves the standard error between 5 and 20 percent. Although intensity and temperature each improve the overall standard error less than 5 percent, they are factors that vary regionally rather than randomly. The improvement in standard error does not tell the whole story. For example, the mapped annual error before temperature was introduced (fig. 1) showed errors ranging from plus 50 percent in northern New England to minus 50 percent in southern New England. These

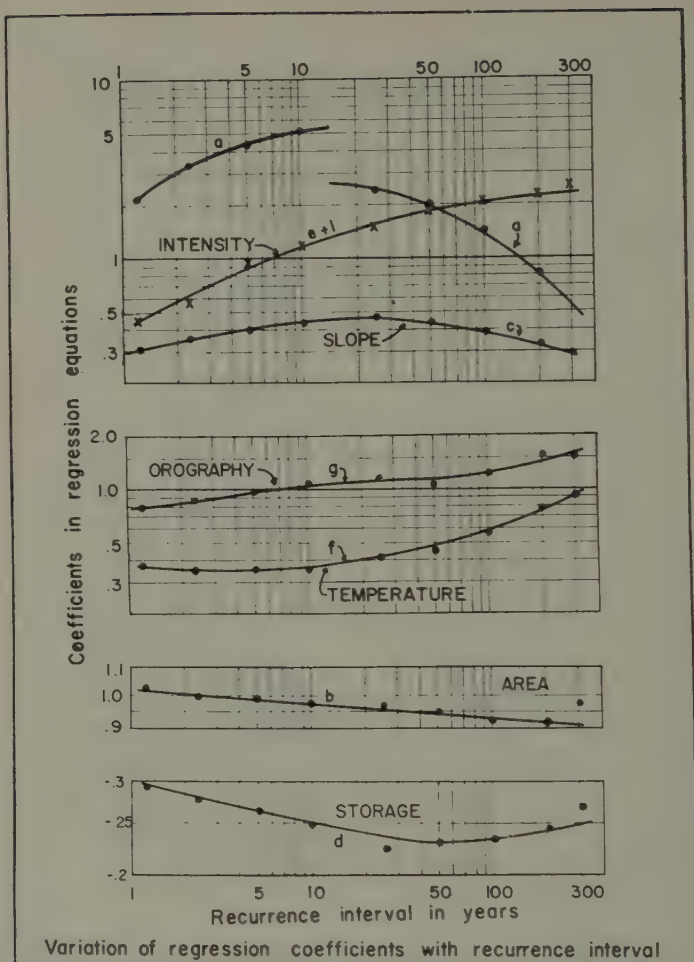


Fig. 6 — Variation in regression coefficients

regional errors were removed by temperature although the average improvement is only 1 to 4 percent.

Figure 6 shows how the exponents in the general equation vary as  $T$ , the recurrence interval, changes from 1.2 to 300 years. The  $a$  coefficient shows an abrupt change between 10 and 25 years because the variable  $I$ , rainfall intensity, has not been used below 25 years. The other coefficients all show consistent and smooth variations with recurrence intervals. The variations in coefficients  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $e$ ,  $f$ , and  $g$  have been tested and found statistically significant. The variations in the coefficient,  $d$ , for surface storage, were not found significant although  $d$  appears to vary uniformly with recurrence interval. For this reason a constant value, — 0.3, has been used throughout in the final set of equations.

Table 3 is a summary of simplified regression coefficients  $b$  through  $g$  selected from curves of figure 6 and rounded to the nearest one-tenth in value. This simplification is according to

shed with no appreciable loss of accuracy in the final equations. The  $a$  coefficients as shown recomputed values which, on theoretical grounds, balance the simplified values of the other coefficients.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF SIMPLIFIED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS

$$Q_T = a A^b S^c St^d I^e f f O^g$$

Recurrence interval, $T$ , in years	Regression Coefficients							Standard error in percent
	$a$	$b$	$c$	$d$	$e$	$f$	$g$	
1.2	2.14	1.0	.3	— .3	0	.4	.8	24.9
2.33	2.60	1.0	.4	— .3	0	.4	.8	23.2
5	3.54	1.0	.4	— .3	0	.4	1.0	26.6
10	4.52	1.0	.4	— .3	0	.4	1.1	28.4
25	2.08	1.0	.5	— .3	.5	.4	1.1	29.3
50	2.26	.9	.4	— .3	.9	.5	1.1	27.2
100	1.38	.9	.4	— .3	1.1	.6	1.2	32.6
200	1.01	.9	.3	— .3	1.2	.8	1.5	33.0
300	0.681	.9	.3	— .3	1.3	.9	1.6	37.2

The final column of table 3 shows the standard errors of estimate at each flood level. These are considered acceptable limits considering the nature of the problem.

The multiple-correlation equations apply only in New England within the limits of the area used to develop the relations. The results apply only to essentially unregulated conditions—highly to basins with less than 4.5 million cubic feet of usable storage per square mile. Although data for drainage areas between 1.64 and 9,700 square miles were used in the analysis, the small number of stations below 10 square miles leave the results uncertain in that range. Because flood experience is of necessity based on a given period of record, results must be considered applicable to the events during that period. They can be used for prediction only if it is assumed that the general level of flood activity will be the same in the future period under consideration in the past. It is believed that, irrespective of the general level of floods represented, the relative effect of the separate hydrologic factors for the New England region is fairly well defined in this study.

The approach used here might prove profitable in any humid region. Modifications in the variables used may be made as found necessary because of local conditions or because of the type of data available. Further study is being made in the arid and semiarid southwestern United States.

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# MAPPING MEAN AREAL PRECIPITATION

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## ABSTRACT

A method is presented for using point mean precipitation data to estimate areal values in regions of high relief. Variation of precipitation with altitude is determined. Local anomalies from this relationship are mapped, and lines of equal anomaly are drawn. By use of the relation corrected for the local anomaly, the mean precipitation at any point can be determined and an isohyetal map drawn. A similar approach can be used to determine mean temperature for studies of snowmelt or of potential evapotranspiration.

For many hydrologic studies, areal mean rainfall is an important factor. In regions of high relief, point rainfall data may be used to extrapolate mean areal values with fair accuracy. In the mountainous country, two factors render this extrapolation more inexact. First, much of the mountainous region is sparsely populated, and since the density of the rain-gaging work is a function of population, there are few rain gages. Second, most gages measure rainfall in the valley, so that an estimation of the rainfall in the mountains is difficult.

Various methods can be used to extend the available data. One method is to sketch isohyetal lines on the basis of recorded precipitation using altitude as a guide. Another method is to divide the region under study into sections on the basis of topography and direction of storm travel and to define separate relations between altitude and precipitation for each section. A more sophisticated method is to correlate available records of precipitation with other details of the terrain surrounding the location of the rain gage as well as with altitude. Factors used by Russler and Spreen (1947) included, for example, the exposure, the orientation of the landscape, a «zone of environment», and altitude. However, a consideration of these factors seemed to indicate that altitude and zone of environment accounted for a major part of the regional variation in precipitation. The following simpler technique was evolved for mapping mean areal precipitation in connection with a study of the hydroclimatology of the Camas Creek basin, a 650 square-mile tributary to the Big Wood River in southern Idaho. The elevation of the basin ranges from 4,870 feet at the gaging station on Camas Creek near Bliss to 6,830 feet on the southern rim, with a maximum of 10,080 feet on the northern rim. Although about two-thirds of the basin lies below 5,500 feet, the average elevation of the basin is about 5,800 feet.

## DATA AVAILABLE

Mean annual precipitation and altitude for 42 stations in and near the Camas and Big Wood basins were available from the U.S. Weather Bureau, and data for 9 mountain snow courses were available from the U.S. Soil Conservation Service. Records at 31 stations were of sufficient length and quality to use the reported averages. Records at 9 other stations were less than 5 years long. For these stations the means of record were adjusted by comparison with records at nearby long-term stations. Snow-course data as well as records obtained from mountain storage gages (precipitation gages read at the onset and close of winter) are specially valued because of data they provide on precipitation at high altitudes.

In order to estimate the precipitation for the snow courses, the maximum inches of water in the snow was abstracted from the Summary of Snow Survey Data for the Columbia River

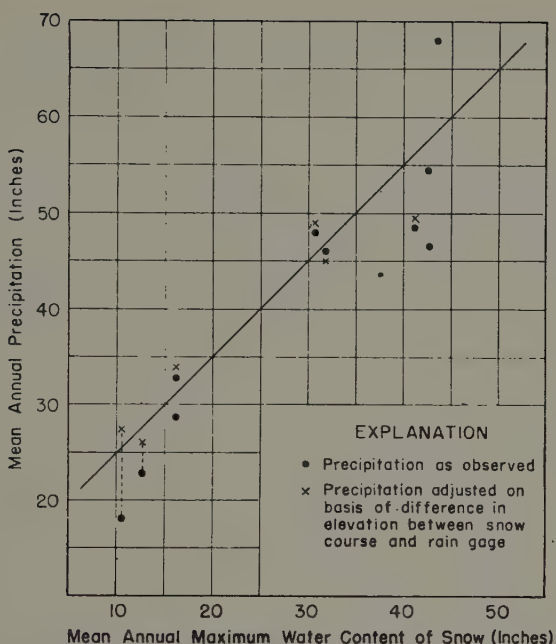


Fig. 1 — Relation between Mean annual precipitation and mean annual maximum water content of snow.

in, June 1953, for 10 stations where both snow and total precipitation data were collected. These data were plotted against mean annual precipitation to define a relationship between snow survey data and annual precipitation (See fig. 1). This relationship then was applied to 9 snow-survey data stations pertinent to this study.

#### PRECIPITATION-ALTITUDE RELATION

The first step in the study was the preparation of a trial relationship between precipitation and altitude. For all 51 stations, mean annual precipitation was plotted against altitude and a trend line was drawn. Figure 2 shows the results for this study. The slope of the trend line, called the hyeto-lapse rate, indicates an increase of 10 inches per 1,000 feet of altitude.

The hyeto-lapse rate of 10 inches per 1,000 feet is greater than most studies in the United States show. Lee (1911) stated that annual precipitation on the windward side of the Sierra Nevada increases at a rate of 8.5 inches per 1,000 feet up to an altitude of 5,000 feet, and decreases above. Henry (1919) gives many lapse rates ranging from almost nothing on the west slopes of South America to 10 inches per 1,000 feet at Assam, India. He gives a rate of 8.5 inches per 1,000 feet for the southern Sierra Nevada, 6 inches per 1,000 feet for southern California, and 4 inches per 1,000 feet for eastern Idaho. The latter is a close check of the results of the present study. All values greater than 10 inches are for areas outside the United States, and mainly for tropical areas.

The U.S. Weather Bureau (1953) in a study of the hydrometeorology in the Snake River basin, which includes the Camas River basin, reports hyetolapse rates ranging from 4 to 4.7 inches per 1,000 feet. Although these results indicate that the hyeto-lapse rate indicated in

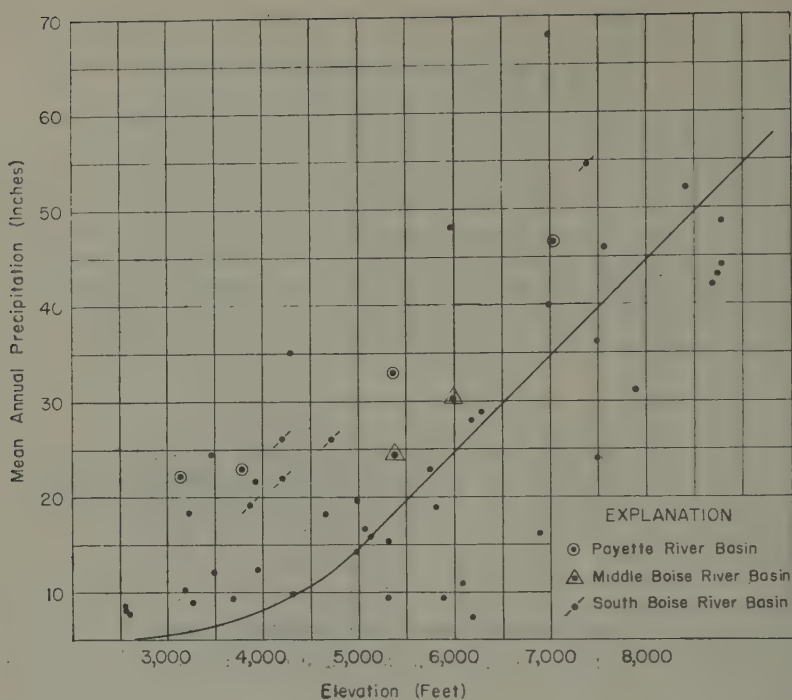


Fig. 2 — Relation between mean annual precipitation and altitude

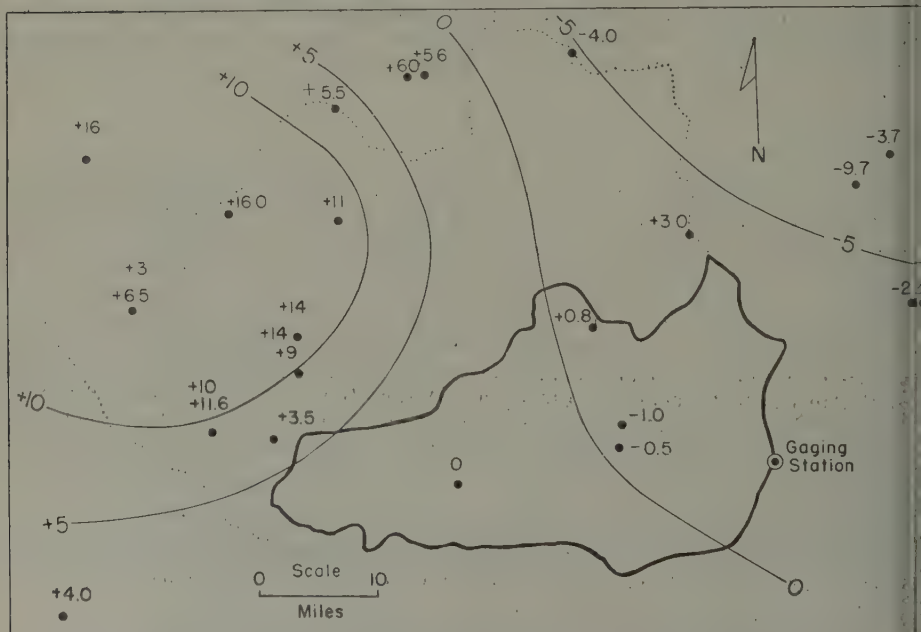


Fig. 3 — Map of Camas Creek and adjoining region showing precipitation anomalies



Figure 2 may be an overestimate, the data seem to confirm a rate of 10 inches per 1,000 feet for this region.

#### PRECIPITATION-ANOMALY MAP

Deviations from the trend line of the precipitation-altitude relation were plotted as anomalies on a map of the area, and lines of equal anomaly were drawn (see fig. 3).

The geographical spacing of the anomalies appears very consistent, with large positive anomalies to the west and large negative anomalies to the east. This variation in the anomalies is consistent with the general weather pattern in the Camas Creek basin. The general movement of storms is from west to east, and each basin is in the rain shadow of the mountain ridge to the west.

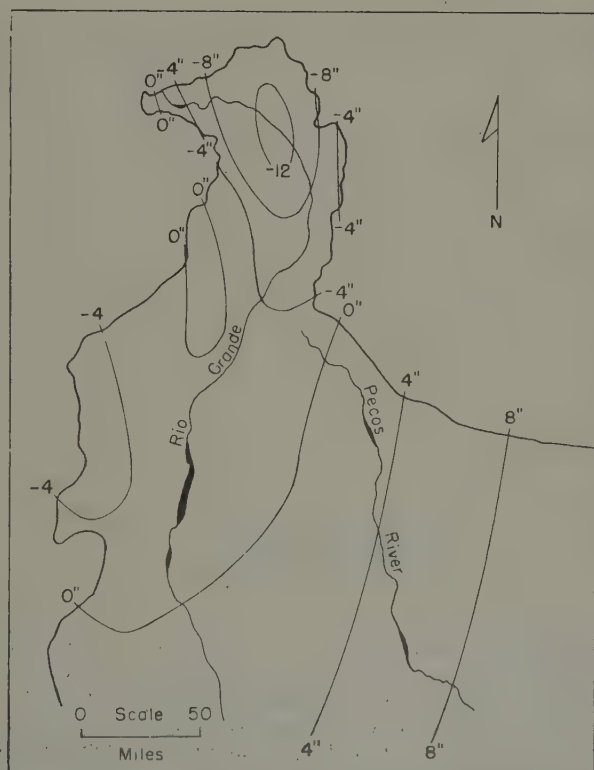


Fig. 4' — Map of upper Rio Grande basin showing precipitation anomalies.

Figure 4 shows a similar map of anomalies for the Upper Rio Grande region derived by A. Benson, hydraulic engineer of the U.S. Geological Survey. Here again the pattern shows smooth gradation but with increasing trend from west to east. The deep rain shadow of the Luis Valley in the upper reaches of the Rio Grande shows up clearly. This area partly overlaps the area studied by Russler and Spreen (1947). Benson's study agrees quite well with their results. Of the drainage basin rainfall values computed by both methods, about

one-half were within five percent of each other. Over two-thirds were within 10 percent. The lapse rate (in the Upper Rio Grande region) was  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches per 1,000 feet.

If there is uncertainty about the altitude-precipitation relation, its position can be fixed more definitely by the following procedure. Values of the anomalies are read from the smooth iso-anomalies and then applied with reversed algebraic sign to the values of the observed precipitation. The values of precipitation so adjusted are replotted against the altitude. These data then define a precipitation-altitude relationship quite closely. The re-defined altitude relationship can be used to compute and re-define the lines of iso-anomalies. The re-defined precipitation-altitude relationship for the Camas Creek region shown on figure 5 confirms the original shown on figure 2.

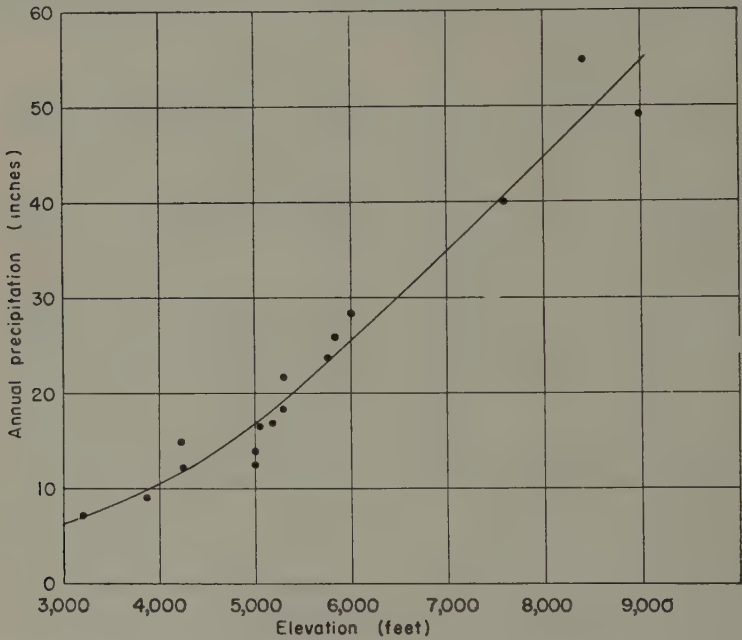


Fig. 5 — Re-defined precipitation-altitude relationship

The preparation of a precipitation map follows quite readily. For each line of equal anomaly, the relation of precipitation to altitude is one parallel to the general trend line, with correction of the amount of precipitation by the amount of anomaly. For example, the plus anomaly line uniformly has 10 inches more precipitation at a given altitude than the general trend line shows. For places between lines of equal anomaly interpolation is necessary.

Whereas the altitude-precipitation graph and the chart of iso-anomalies are quite smooth the isohyetal lines following the topography would be quite irregular. Therefore, for mapping applications, it may not be necessary to go to the labor of drawing the isohyetal chart, as precipitation for any given place can be computed quite readily from its altitude and its known geographic position on the anomaly chart.

The method described in this paper could be applied not only to the mapping of mean annual precipitation but also to mapping seasonal precipitation as well. An even better relationship might be found for seasonal precipitation since there may be more uniform storm patterns within shorter periods. A more uniform storm pattern probably would result in a closer definition of the iso-anomaly lines.

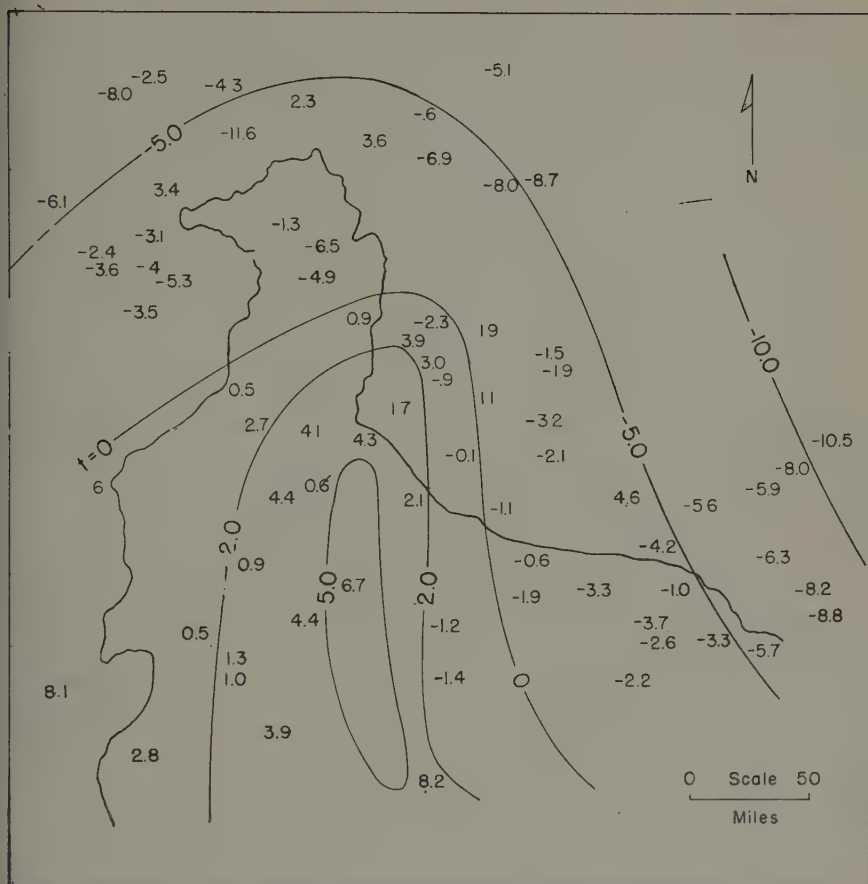


Fig. 6 — Map of upper Rio Grande basin showing January temperature anomalies .

#### TEMPERATURE-ANOMALY MAP

A technique similar to that described for determination of the areal precipitation pattern be applied to the definition of the areal variation of temperatures over broad areas. In studies of the flood hydrology of the Upper Rio Grande basin in Colorado and New Mexico, M.A. Benson also has applied this procedure to mapping January temperatures. A relationship between mean January temperatures and altitude indicated a temperature lapse of 4.5° F per thousand feet. Anomalies from this relationship were then plotted on a map of the area, and lines of equal anomaly were drawn (see fig. 6).

TABLE 1

MEAN PRECIPITATION AND ELEVATION FOR WEATHER STATIONS  
IN AND ABOUT CAMAS AND BIG WOOD BASINS

Station	Elevation above mean sea level (feet)	Mean precipitation (inches)
<i>Weather Bureau normals listed in 1955 issue of Climatological Data</i>		
Arco	5,320	9.43
Arrowrock Dam	3,239	18.30
Bliss	3,269	8.80
Chilly Barton Flat	6,200	7.45
Deadwood Dam	5,375	32.87
Garden Valley RS	3,147	22.14
Glenns Ferry	2,569	8.58
Gooding AP	3,696	9.27
Grand View	2,600	7.66
Grouse	6,100	10.94
Hailey	5,322	15.33
Hill City	5,000	14.09
Idaho City	3,940	21.48
Island Park Dam	6,300	28.76
Lowman	3,800	22.95
Mackay RS	5,897	9.33
Mountain Home 1NE	3,180	10.02
Obsidian 4NNE	6,900	16.10
Richfield	4,306	9.73
Shoshone	3,955	10.23
Sun Valley	5,821	18.88

*Climatic Summary to 1930 and supplement, 1931-52*

Anderson Dam	3,882	19.17
Atlanta	5,390	24.35
Atlanta 1E	6,000	30.12
Garnet	2,575	8.03
Little Camas	5,000	19.48
Pine 2SSW	4,225	21.88
Soldier	5,140	15.82
Soldier Creek	5,755	22.83
Sunnyside	3,500	12.02



TABLE 1 (continued)

Station	Elevation above mean sea level (feet)	Mean precipitation (inches)
<i>Estimated from current short-term records</i>		
Anta Summit	7,590	46
terville	4,300	35
field	5,065	16.5
ore Creek	5,990	48
e IN	4,220	26
ke Creek	4,730	26
uity Lake	7,400	54.5
utdale	3,475	24.3
ina	8,800	48.5
<i>Estimated from snow courses</i>		
l Mountain	8,700	42
ch Summit	7,000	25
ena	7,500	20.8
ena Summit	8,795	29.4
ham Ranch	6,200	13.3
chum	8,421	52
Wood Divide	8,750	28.2
scot Mine	7,900	15.8
kney Mill	7,500	9.0
<i>Estimated from short-period storage gages</i>		
Wood Summit	7,000	68
son Peak	7,050	46.5

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## ENQUETE SUR LES CARACTERISTIQUES CHIMIQUES ET PHYSICO-CHIMIQUES DES EAUX DU PO A POLESSELLA ET RECHERCHE DES MATIÈRES DISSOUTES DANS L'EAU AU MOYEN D'ANALYSES CHIMIQUES QUANTITATIVES ET SPECTROGRAPHIQUES SEMI-QUANTITATIVES

Prof. Ing. LUIGI GHERARDELLI  
Dott. Ing. LAMBERTO CANALI

### 1) — *Avant-propos*

En 1959 le Bureau Hydrographique du Po accueillant une proposition faite par l'Association Internationale d'Hydrologie Scientifique au cours de la Réunion de l'Assemblée Générale de Toronto au mois de septembre 1957 a commencé une enquête sur les matières dissoutes dans les eaux du Pô et sur leur variabilité selon le régime des écoulements — Cette enquête consistait en une série d'analyses chimiques et spectrographiques sur des échantillons d'eau étant donné qu'il s'agissait de la première campagne d'enquêtes sur ce sujet, qu'on devait par conséquent considérer comme ayant un caractère d'information, on a jugé convenable de limiter à quatre le nombre des échantillons à analyser, conformément, du reste, aux directives indiquées, (en principe), par l'Association mentionnée.

Si le Service Hydrographique du Po aura la possibilité de continuer à l'avenir l'étude entreprise, on pourra considérer la nécessité de varier la manière et la fréquence des prélèvements compte tenu, naturellement, des résultats obtenus à présent — Les prélèvements ont été effectués dans les conditions d'écoulement suivantes :

- en eaux basses (prélèvement du 25.2.59 —  $Q = 800 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$ )
- en eaux hautes, en coïncidence avec l'intensité max. de crue (prélèvement du 4.5.59 —  $Q = 4.700 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$ )
- pendant la phase de croissance d'une crue (prélèvement du 18.11.58 —  $Q = 4.120 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$ )
- durant la phase décroissante de la même crue (prélèvement du 24.11.59 —  $Q = 2.984 \text{ m}^3/\text{sec.}$ )

Pour chaque analyse on a prélevé 20 litres d'eau, lesquels filtrés sur place avec des filtres Whatmann, du type à filtrage rapide, étaient recueillis dans des récipients de polyéthylène pendant qu'on recueillait, à part, dans une bouteille en verre 2 litres de la même eau pour les déterminations du fer et du manganèse.

Les échantillons étaient remis au Laboratoire d'Analyses dans les 24 heures à partir de l'heure du prélèvement pour les premières et immédiates déterminations que le Laboratoire même devait effectuer.

Avec chaque échantillon on envoyait au Laboratoire une fiche avec l'indication des conditions atmosphériques pendant le prélèvement; du débit du cours d'eau, des caractéristiques physiques de l'eau et de la température de l'eau et de l'air au moment du prélèvement.

Tous les échantillons ont été prélevés à la section de Polesella, située à 24 Km environ en amont du delta du Po, qui comprend un bassin versant de 70091 Km<sup>2</sup>; les prélèvements étaient effectués sur la ligne centrale du courant à la surface des eaux — Les analyses ont été faites au Laboratoire chimique Provincial de Bologne qui a été effectuée sous la direction de M. le Dr. Mario MENGOLI, un travail très soigné et scrupuleux.

Sur chaque échantillon on a effectué une analyse chimique quantitative en indiquant p.p. m. les substances recherchées; on a effectué de même les déterminations de certaines c

tes physico-chimiques et d'autres encore, telles que la dureté totale et permanente; l'alcalinité,  
 — Sur les mêmes échantillons d'eau on a effectué successivement l'analyse spectrographique  
 i-quantitative qui, tout en fournissant un contrôle des résultats de l'analyse chimique  
 titative, permettait la détermination d'un plus grand nombre d'éléments.

Le pourcentage des éléments recherchés a été exprimé avec nombres de la série  
 -1-0.3—0.1, etc.

our les éléments recherchés on a indiqué sur les certificats les symboles suivants :

— élément non recherché : —

— élément recherché mais absent : o

## — Résultat des analyses

### 1<sup>er</sup> Certificat

— *Echantillon* : eau du Po prélevée le 25.2.59 de 9 h 30 à 13 h 30.

— *Conditions atmosphériques* : Ciel couvert jusqu'à 10 h 30 ensuite soleil modéré.

— *Conditions du fleuve*: eaux basses (soutenues). Débit approximatif: 800 m<sup>3</sup>/sec. environ.

— *Caractéristiques physiques de l'eau remise au laboratoire* : limpide, sans odeur, pratique-  
 ment incolore. Absence de sédiment notable au moment du prélèvement. Après repos, abon-  
 ce de sédiment poussiéreux et jaunâtre.

— *Constantes physico-chimiques* :

— Température de l'eau, à 11 h 30 7° 5 C.

— Température de l'air, à 11 h 30 13° 0 C.

— Acidité actuelle par voie électrométrique (pH) 7.25

— Conductivité électrique spécifique à 25° C.  $\mu$ S 409.2

— Couleur (déterminée avec une solution platine-cobalt selon la Standard  
 Méthode) 18 unités

— *Détermination quantitative* (exprimée en p.p.m.)

Silice	(Si O <sub>2</sub> )	5.50
Fer	(Fe)	0.196
Manganèse	(Mn)	0.004
Calcium	(Ca)	60.62
Magnésium	(Mg)	12.92
Sodium	(Na)	17.00
Potassium	(K)	2.20
Bicarbonates	(HC O <sub>3</sub> )	187.20
Carbonates	(C O <sub>3</sub> )	6.00
Sulfates	(SO <sub>4</sub> )	53.08
Chlorures	(Cl)	19.75
Fluorures	(F)	0.09
Nitrates	(NO <sub>3</sub> )	pratiquement absents.

— *Déterminations diverses* :

Substances solides en solution (calculées) mg/l 264.96

Résidu fixe à 180° C. mg/l 265.40

Dureté totale (en degrés français) 20° 5

Dureté permanente (en degrés français) 9° 8

Alcalinité (en Ca CO<sub>3</sub>) mg/l 153.50

— *Analyse spectrographique semi-quantitative* :

Silicium	(Si)	mg	0.3	pour cent	gr d'eau
Aluminium	(Al)	»	0.0001	%	» »

Fer	(Fe)	»	0.03	%	gr d'eau
Magnésium	(Mg)	»	1.0	%	» »
Calcium	(Ca)	mg	3.0	%	» »
Sodium	(Na)	mg	1.0	%	» »
Titane	(Ti)	—			
Phosphore	(P)		0		
Manganèse	(Mn)	mg	0.0003	%	» »
Argent	(Ag)	»	0.00003	%	» »
Arsenic	(As)		0		
Or	(Au)		0		
Barium	(Ba)	mg	0.1	%	» »
Bora	(B)		—		
Beryllium	(Be)		0		
Bismuth	(Bi)		0		
Cadmium	(Cd)		0		
Cerium	(Ce)		0		
Cobalt	(Co)		0		
Chromé	(Cr)	mg	0.0001	%	» »
Cesium	(Cs)		0		
Cuivre	(Cu)	»	0.0001	%	» »
Disprosium	(Dy)		—		
Erbium	(Er)		—		
Europium	(Eu)		—		
Fluor	(F)	mg	0.01	%	» »
Gadolinium	(Gd)		—		
Gallium	(Ga)		0		
Germanium	(Ge)		—		
Hafnium	(Hf)		—		
Mercure	(Hg)		0		
Hélium	(He)		—		
Indium	(In)		0		
Iridium	(Ir)		—		
Lanthanium	(La)		—		
Litium	(Li)	mg	0.01	%	» »
Lutetium	(Lu)		—		
Molibdène	(Mo)		0		
Niobium	(Nb)		—		
Neodimium	(Nd)		—		
Nikel	(Ni)	mg	0.0003	%	gr d'eau
Osmium	(Os)		—		
Plomb	(Pb)	mg	0.001	%	» »
Palladium	(Pd)		0		
Praseodimium	(Pr)		—		
Platine	(Pt)		0		
Rubidium	(Rb)		0		
Rhenium	(Re)		—		
Rhodium	(Rh)		—		
Antimonio	(Sb)		0		
Scandium	(Sc)		—		
Etain	(Sn)	mg	0.01	%	» »
Strontium	(Sr)	»	0.1	%	» »
Samarium	(Sm)		—		
Tantale	(Ta)		—		
Terbium	(Tb)		—		



Tellure	(Te)	-			
Torium	(To)	-			
Tallium	(Tl)	-			
Tullium	(Tm)	-			
Uranium	(U)	-			
Vanadium	(V)	-			
Tungstène	(W)	0			
Ytthrium	(Y)	0			
Yttherbium	(Yb)	-			
Zinc	(Zn)	mg 0.0001	%	»	»
Zirconium	(Zr)	-			

### II<sup>me</sup> Certificat

*Echantillon* : eau du Po prélevée le 4.5.59 de 10 h à 17 h.

*Conditions atmosphériques* : ciel clair

*Conditions du fleuve* : crue, à cause des eaux du Piémont

*Caractères physiques de l'eau apportée au Laboratoire* :

— Trouble, jaunâtre, sans odeur — Après un repos elle reste opalescente et il se forme dépôt flocculeux jaunâtre —

*Constantes physico-chimiques* :

— Température de l'eau	13° 0 C
— Température de l'air	19° 0 C
— Acidité actuelle par voie électrométrique (pH)	7,7
— Conductibilité électrique à 25° C	μS 224,7
— Couleur (déterminée avec une solution platine-cobalt selon la Standard Méthode)	22/unités

*Détermination quantitative* (exprimée en p.p.m.)

Silice	(Si O <sub>2</sub> )	8.60
Fer	(Fe)	0.811
Manganèse	(Mn)	0.012
Calcium	(Ca)	33.61
Magnésium	(Mg)	8.37
Sodium	(Na)	7.00
Potassium	(K)	1.80
Bicarbonates	(HCO <sub>3</sub> )	108.10
Carbonates	(CO <sub>3</sub> )	absents
Sulfates	(SO <sub>4</sub> )	29.05
Chlorures	(Cl)	9.00
Fluorures	(F)	0.35
Nitrates	(NO <sub>3</sub> )	traces non dosables

*Déterminations diverses* :

Substances solides en solution (calculées)	mg/l 164.999
Résidu fixe à 180° C	» 165.60
Dureté totale (en degrés français)	11° 8
Dureté permanente (en degrés français)	7° 8
Alcalinité (en CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	mg/l 88.60

*Analyses spectrographique semi-quantitative .*

Silicium	(Si)	mg	0.3	%	gr	d'eau
Aluminium	(Al)	»	0.00001	%	»	»
Fer	(Fe)	»	0.1	%	»	»
Magnésium	(Mg)	»	1.0	%	»	
Calcium	(Ca)	»	3.0	%	»	»
Sodium	(Na)	»	1.0	%	»	»
Potassium	(K)	»	0.1	%	»	»
Titane	(Ti)		—			
Phosphore	(P)		0			
Manganèse	(Mn)	»	0.001	%	»	»
Argent	(Ag)	»	0.00001	%	»	»
Arsénic	(As)		0			
Or	(Au)		0			
Bore	(B)		—			
Barium	(Ba)	mg	0.03	%	»	»
Beryllium	(Be)		0			
Bismuth	(Bi)		0			
Cadmium	(Cd)		0			
Cerium	(Ce)		0			
Cobalt	(Co)		0			
Chrome	(Cr)	mg	0.00003	%	»	»
Cesium	(Cs)		0			
Cuivre	(Cu)	mg	0.00003	%	»	»
Disprosium	(Dy)		—			
Erbium	(Er)		—			
Europium	(Eu)		—			
Fuore	(F)	mg	0.03	%	»	»
Gadolinium	(Gd)		—			
Gallium	(Ga)		0			
Germanium	(Ge)		—			
Hafnium	(Hf)		—			
Mercure	(Hg)		0			
Hélium	(He)		—			
Indium	(In)		0			
Iridium	(Ir)		—			
Lanthanium	(La)		—			
Lithium	(Li)	mg	0.003	%	»	»
Lutétiun	(Lu)		—			
Mobildène	(Mo)		0			
Niobium	(Nb)		—			
Nickel	(Ni)	mg	0.001	%	»	»
Osmium	(Os)		—			
Plomb	(Pb)	mg	0.0001	%	»	»
Palladium	(Pd)		0			
Praseodimium	(Pr)		—			
Platine	(Pt)		0			
Rubidium	(Rb)		0			
Rhenium	(Re)		—			
Rhodium	(Rh)		—			
Rutenium	(Ru)		—			
Antimone	(Sb)		0			
Scandium	(Sc)		—			
Etain	(Sn)	mg	0.01	%	»	»

Strontium	(Sr)	0.03	%	gr. d'eau
Samarium	(Sm)	—		
Tantale	(Ta)	—		
Terbium	(Tb)	—		
Tellure	(Te)	—		
Thorium	(Th)	—		
Tallium	(Tl)	—		
Tullium	(Tm)	—		
Uranium	(U)	—		
Vanadium	(V)	—		
Tungstène	(W)	0		
Ytthrium	(Y)	0		
Yttherbium	(Yb)	—		
Zinc	(Zn)	mg. 0.00001	%	» »
Zirconium	(Zr)	—		

### III<sup>me</sup> Certificat

Echantillon : eau du Pô prélevée le 18.11.1959.

Conditions atmosphériques : — pluie d'intensité variable — vent de N.O.

Conditions du fleuve : — en phase avancée de crue croissante due à des précipitations tout le bassin du Pô, avec une forte précipitation sur le versant et fonte de neige — Débit moyen du fleuve à Pontelagoscuro, pendant le prélèvement = 4120 m<sup>3</sup>/s.

Caractéristiques physiques de l'eau apportée au Laboratoire : — couleur opale à peine remarquable sans odeur, limpide après repos, avec quelque sédimentation poussiéreuse et jaunâtre.

#### Constantes physico-chimiques

Température de l'eau : 9.6° C au début du prélèvement;  
9.7° C à la fin du prélèvement.

Température de l'air 11.0° C

Acidité actuelle par voie électrométrique (pH) 7.9

Conductibilité électrique spécifique à 25° C  $\mu$ S 312.5

Couleur (déterminée avec une solution platino-cobalt selon la Standard Méthode) 11 unités

#### — Déterminations quantitatives (exprimées en p.p.m.)

Silice	(SiO <sub>2</sub> )	5.00
Fer	(Fe)	0.25
Manganèse	(Mn)	0.027
Calcium	(Ca)	49.22
Magnésium	(Mg)	10.39
Sodium	(Na)	9.70
Potassium	(K)	2.80
Bicarbonates	(HC O <sub>3</sub> )	157.10
Carbonates	(C O <sub>3</sub> )	absents
Chlorures	(Cl)	13.00
Sulfates	(SO <sub>4</sub> )	34.57
Fluorures	(F)	0.10
Nitrates	(NO <sub>3</sub> )	5.856

— Déterminations diverses			
— Substances solides en solution (calculées)	p.p.m.	209.46	
— Résidu fixe à 180° C	»	211.20	
— Dureté en degrés français	— totale	16° 6	
	— permanente	9° 4	
— Alcalinité (en Ca CO <sub>3</sub> )	p.p.m.	128.70	

— Analyse spectrographique semi-quantitative

Silicium	(Si)	mg	0.3	pour cent	gr d'eau
Aluminium	(Al)	»	0.0003	%	» »
Fer	(Fe)	»	0.03	%	» »
Magnésium	(Mg)	»	1.0	%	» »
Calcium	(Ca)	»	3.0	%	» »
Sodium	(Na)	»	1.0	%	» »
Potassium	(K)	»	0.3	%	» »
Titane	(Ti)	—			
Phosphore	(P)	0			
Manganèse	(Mn)	»	0.003	%	» »
Argent	(Ag)	»	0.00001	%	» »
Arsenic	(As)	»	0.0003	%	» »
Or	(Au)	0			
Bore	(B)	—			
Barium	(Ba)	»	0.1	%	» »
Beryllium	(Be)	0			
Bismuth	(Bi)	0			
Cadmium	(Cd)	0			
Cerium	(Ce)	0			
Cobalt	(Co)	0			
Chrome	(Cr)	»	0.00003	%	» »
Cesium	(Cs)	0			
Cuivre	(Cu)	»	0.00003	%	» »
Dysprosium	(Dy)	—			
Erbium	(Er)	—			
Europium	(Eu)	—			
Fluore	(F)	mg	0.01	pour cent	gr. d'eau
Gadolinium	(Gd)	—			
Gallium	(Ga)	0			
Germanium	(Ge)	—			
Hafnium	(Hf)	—			
Mercure	(Hg)	0			
Hélium	(He)	—			
Indium	(In)	0			
Iridium	(Ir)	0			
Lanthanium	(La)	—			
Litium	(Li)	mg	0.003	%	» »
Lutétium	(Lu)	—			
Molibdène	(Mo)	0			
Nyobium	(Nb)	—			
Néodymium	(Nd)	—			
Nickel	(Ni)	mg	0.0001	%	» »
Osmium	(Os)	—			
Plomb	(Pb)	mg	0.0003	%	» »
Palladium	(Pd)	0			
Praseodimium	(Pr)	—			



Platine	(Pt)	0			
Rubidium	(Rb)	0			
Rhenium	(Re)	—			
Rhodium	(Rh)	—			
Rutenium	(Ru)	—			
Antimoine	(Sb)	0			
Scandium	(Sc)	—			
Etain	(Sn)	0			
Strontium	(Sr)	mg 0.03	%	gr d'eau	
Samarium	(Sm)	—			
Tantalum	(Ta)	—			
Terbium	(Tb)	—			
Tellurium	(Te)	—			
Thrium	(Th)	—			
Tallium	(Tl)	—			
Tullium	(Tm)	—			
Uranium	(U)	—			
Vanadium	(V)	—			
Tungstène	(W)	0			
Ytthrium	(Yi)	0			
Yttherbium	(Yb)	—			
Zinc	(Zn)	mg 0.0001	%	»	»
Zirconium	(Zr)	—			

#### IV<sup>me</sup> Certificat

Echantillon : eau du Pô prélevée le 24.11.59 de 8 h 45 à 11 h 30.

Conditions atmosphériques — ciel clair

Conditions du fleuve — en décroissement — Débit moyen du fleuve Pontolagoscuro pendant prélèvement = 2.984 m<sup>3</sup>/s.

Caracteristiques physiques de l'eau apportée au Laboratoire — couleur opaline à peine visible, sans odeur, limpide après repos, avec une sédimentation poussiéreuse et jaunâtre.

Constantes physico-chimiques —

Température de l'eau

8.8° C

Température de l'air :

6.3° C au début du  
prélèvement;  
9.4° C à la fin du  
prélèvement

Acidité actuelle par voie électrométrique (pH) 8.05

Conductibilité électrique à 25° 352.8  $\mu$ S

Couleur (déterminée avec une solution de platino-cobalt selon la Standard Méthode) 9 unités

— Déterminations quantitatives (exprimées en p.p.m.)

Silice	(Si O <sub>2</sub> )	6.50
Fer	(Fe)	0.22
Manganèse	(Mn)	0.033
Calcium	(Ca)	51.80
Magnésium	(Mg)	10.98

Sodium	(Na)	10.40
Potassium	(K)	2.90
Bicarbonates	(HCO <sub>3</sub> )	172.70
Carbonates	(CO <sub>3</sub> )	absents
Sulfates	(SO <sub>4</sub> )	35.31
Chlorures	(Cl)	13.00
Fluorures	(F)	0.12
Nitrates	(NO <sub>3</sub> )	2.74

— Déterminations diverses —

Substances solides en solution (calculées)	p.p.m.	220.355
Résidu fixe à 180° C	»	221.40
Dureté en degrés français — totale		17° 6
— permanente		9° 5
Alcalinité en (Ca CO <sub>3</sub> )	p.p.m.	141.60

— Analyse spectrographique semi-quantitative :

Silicium	(Si)	mg	0.3				
Aluminium	(Al)	»	0.0003		%	»	»
Fer	(Fe)	»	0.03		%	»	»
Magnésium	(Mg)	»	1.0		%	»	»
Calium	(Ca)	»	3.0		%	»	»
Sodium	(Na)	»	1.0		%	»	»
Potassium	(K)	»	0.3		%	»	»
Titane	(Ti)		—				
Phosphore	(P)		0				
Manganèse	(Mn)	»	0.003		%	»	»
Argent	(Ag)	»	0.00001		%	»	»
Arsenic	(As)	»	0.0001		%	»	»
Or	(Au)	»	0				
Bore	(B)		—				
Barium	(Ba)	»	0.03		%	»	»
Beryllium	(Be)		0		%		
Bismuth	(Bi)		0				
Cadmium	(Cd)		0				
Cerium	(Ce)		0				
Cobalt	(Co)		0				
Chrome	(Cr)	mg	0.0001		%	gr. d'eau	
Cesium	(Cs)		0				
Cuivre	(Cu)	»	0.00003		%	»	»
Dysprosium	(Dy)		—				
Erbium	(Er)		—				
Europium	(Eu)		—				
Fluore	(F)	»	0.01		%	»	»
Gadolinium	(Gd)		—				
Gallium	(Ga)		0				
Germanium	(Ge)		—				
Hafnium	(Hf)		—				
Mercure	(Hg)		0				
Hélium	(He)		—				
Indium	(In)		0				
Iridium	(Ir)		0				
Lanthanium	(La)		—				

Litium	(Li)	mg	0.003	%	gr d'eau
Lutetium	(Lu)	—	—	—	—
Molibdène	(Mo)	—	0	—	—
Niobium	(Nb)	—	—	—	—
Néodimium	(Nd)	—	—	—	—
Nickel	(Ni)	mg	0.0001	%	» »
Osmium	(Os)	—	—	—	—
Plomb	(Pb)	mg	0.0003	%	» »
Palladium	(Pd)	—	0	—	—
Praséodimium	(Pr)	—	—	—	—
Platine	(Pt)	—	0	—	—
Rubidium	(Rb)	—	0	—	—
Rhénium	(Re)	—	—	—	—
Rhodium	(Ro)	—	—	—	—
Ruthenium	(Rh)	—	—	—	—
Antimoine	(Sb)	—	0	—	—
Scandium	(Sc)	—	—	—	—
Etain	(Sn)	—	0	—	—
Strontium	(Sr)	mg	0.03	%	» »
Samarium	(Sm)	—	—	—	—
Tantale	(Ta)	—	—	—	—
Terbium	(Tb)	—	—	—	—
Tellurium	(Te)	—	—	—	—
Thorium	(Th)	—	—	—	—
Tallium	(Tl)	—	—	—	—
Tullium	(Tm)	—	—	—	—
Uranium	(U)	—	—	—	—
Vanadium	(V)	—	—	—	—
Tungstène	(W)	—	0	—	—
Ytthrium	(Y)	—	0	—	—
Yttherbium	(Yb)	—	—	—	—
Zinc	(Zn)	mg	0.0001	%	» »
Zirconium	(Zr)	—	—	—	—

## 2- Considérations sur les résultats des analyses chimiques quantitatives —

Les déterminations quantitatives ont mis en évidence les caractéristiques de l'eau, qui dépendent naturellement des terrains traversés.

Il s'agit d'une eau pauvre en silice et en carbonates et riche en calcium, bicarbonates et sels. Même le contenu en chlore est assez élevé.

Il n'est pas possible de reconnaître les éventuelles caractéristiques saisonnières du phénomène en raison du faible nombre d'analyses dont on dispose; par contre on peut affirmer que tous les éléments en solution ne subissent pas une dilution par l'augmentation du débit, au contraire, il y en a quelques-uns qui subissent de modestes augmentations.

A l'état actuel des enquêtes, les analyses quantitatives et les autres différentes déterminations permettent les considérations que nous exposons ci-dessous.

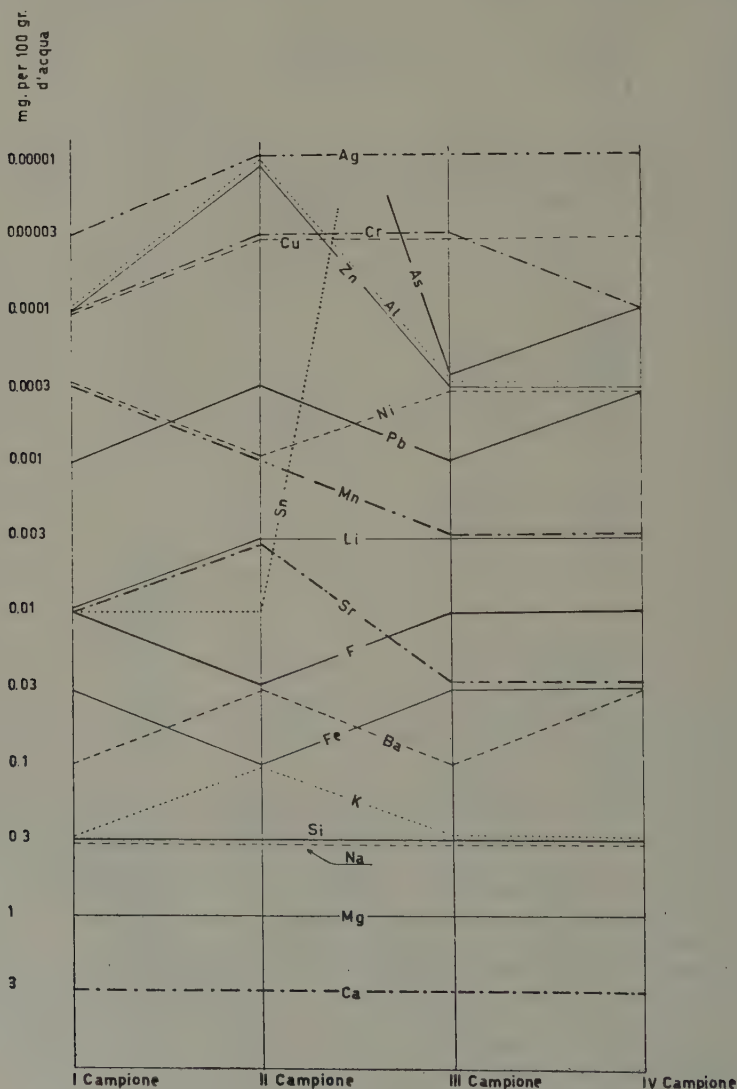
1. — en période de crue on note une dilution des composants minéraux, à l'exception de la silice et du fer dont la proportion devient sensiblement supérieure à celle présente en période d'étiage.

Ceci peut s'expliquer par le transport de sables argileux non parfaitement filtrés dans la prise comme échantillon : substantiellement il s'agit d'une action plus active due aux éléments en suspension.

En période de crue on remarque aussi une augmentation de fluor (environ 4 fois celle période d'étiage).

Toutefois son contenu est relativement modeste (0.35 mg/l) : il peut donc être considéré comme normal même si l'eau devrait être employée comme eau potable.

2. — Dans les échantillons prélevés en phase croissante ou décroissante de crue on a la présence de nitrates, pratiquement absents dans les deux autres échantillons — La période pendant laquelle avaient été prélevés les échantillons qui révélaient la présence de nitrates a été provoquée par des précipitations répandues sur tout le Compartiment, particulièrement remarquables sur le versant des Apennins, et par la fonte de neiges récente — On peut comprendre





intuition que les premières eaux météoriques qui déterminent la crue, en lavant le sol, chargent de produits dérivant de la décomposition des substances organiques.

Au fur et à mesure que la crue se forme, la forte dilution rend pratiquement indosables les traces de nitrates; pendant la phase décroissante il est à nouveau possible de déterminer la présence de ceux-ci, qui sont d'ailleurs en quantité inférieure à celle de la phase croissante.

3. — La dureté totale est demeurée normale et en rapport avec le régime des débits : elle varie d'un maximum de 20°,5 (degrés français) en période d'étiage soutenu, à un minimum de 10°,8 en période de crue — La dureté permanente se maintient beaucoup plus uniforme dans la variation des débits — elle passe de 9°,8 à l'étiage, à 7°,8 en phase de crue.

4. — L'alcalinité (en  $\text{Ca CO}_3$ ) varie avec le débit du fleuve et sa valeur passe de 88.60 mg/l à l'étiage à 153,50 mg/l en phase de crue.

Dans tous les cas le degré d'alcalinité est toujours resté assez élevé.

5. — La quantité, calculée, de substances solides en solution dépend du degré de dilution et est montré variable, dans les divers échantillons considérés, de 264,96 mg/l à l'étiage à 999 mg/l en crue.

6. — Le résidu fixe à 180° C, par contre, ne semble pas être influencé par l'état hydrologique du fleuve, mais plutôt par la saison, car les échantillons de novembre ont donné des résidus supérieurs à ceux de février et de mai.

7. — Sur tous les échantillons analysés l'eau a donné une réaction alcaline avec des valeurs de pH comprises entre 7.25 (en période d'étiage) à 8.05 (en phase de crue décroissante).

Il a semblé intéressant d'effectuer une enquête même sommaire, pour l'évaluation des substances dissoutes qui pendant une année moyenne s'écoulent à la mer.

Etant donné que la possibilité d'établir d'une façon satisfaisante un rapport entre le contenu en substances solides en solution et le régime des écoulements n'existe pas en raison du faible nombre d'échantillons disponibles, on a pris un contenu de substance dissoutes en une année, à la moyenne des quatre valeurs résultant des analyses, c'est-à-dire 214,94 mg/l. Etant donné que le bassin versant du Po, à la section de Polesella, est de 70.091 Km<sup>2</sup>, soit 27.000 sq. km, et que le débit moyen annuel relatif à l'année normale est de 1450 m<sup>3</sup>/s, correspondant à 1.200 Cfs., la quantité de substances dissoutes qui affluent vers la mer en une année est de  $10 \times 10^6$  tonnes, soit  $10.8 \times 10^6$  tons.

Cette valeur est vraiment élevée et supérieure à ce qu'on pouvait attendre; il suffit de considérer que la quantité de substances solides en suspension transportées dans l'année est de 12.3  $10^6$  tonnes, soit  $13.5 \times 10^6$  tons, c'est-à-dire du même ordre de grandeur.

Cette conclusion, de grand intérêt, devra être confirmée par le prélèvement d'échantillons, fréquents et nombreux dans le but de pouvoir établir une corrélation digne de foi entre le contenu en substances dissoutes et le régime des débits.

#### *Considérations sur les résultats des analyses spectrographiques*

Les résultats des analyses spectrographiques qui, pour une plus évidente interprétation, ont été représentés dans le diagramme de la fig 1, n'ont pas mis en évidence des singularités particulières, mais, au contraire, elles ont confirmé les valeurs déjà déterminées par les analyses titrimétriques.

La recherche a été étendue à 39 éléments; parmi ceux-ci, 18 se sont révélés absents dans les échantillons et deux autres absents chacun dans deux seuls échantillons.

Les éléments repérés sont ceux normalement présents à la surface des eaux et les réactions constatées dans les divers échantillons, doivent être considérées comme normales. Parmi les éléments recherchés on a constaté une variabilité moindre, par rapport aux débits, pour ceux présents en doses plus fortes : ceux-ci sont les composants des roches du bassin : le calcium-magnésium, le sodium, le silicium, et la potasse.

La présence de l'arsenic dans les phases de crue ascendante et décroissante mérite d'être particulièrement remarquée — sa quantité est pratiquement très faible (0.003 mg/l); on doit noter de même la présence de l'étain, mais en période d'étiage et de crue.

— *Considérations générales sur les caractéristiques de l'eau du Pô à Polesella*

A la lumière des résultats acquis par les analyses on juge utile d'exprimer aussi un jugement même de principe, sur les données incomplètes dont on pouvait disposer, sur les caractéristiques de l'eau du Pô à Polesella par rapport à son aptitude d'emploi pour l'irrigation ou comme eau potable, ainsi que son agressivité sur les constructions en béton.

Pour l'emploi agricole et potable, l'eau présente du point de vue physico-chimique de bonnes qualités d'acceptabilité de son agressivité. Particulièrement en ce qui concerne l'irrigation et la potabilité on doit remarquer que, étant donné qu'il s'agit d'eau dure à réaction basique elle exerce une action assez utile sur les sols acides, plutôt fréquents dans les vastes territoires agricoles de la basse vallée du Pô.

En ce qui concerne l'action agressive sur les ouvrages en béton on doit rappeler normalement on doit considérer dangereuse l'eau qui présente les conditions suivantes.

- contenu en anhydride sulfurique  $\text{SO}_3 \leq 40 \div 50 \text{ mg/l}$
- dureté temporaire (degrés français)  $D \geq 3.5 \div 4$ ;  $pH \geq 7.30$ .

Par conséquent même sous cet aspect les échantillons analysés ne peuvent causer aucune préoccupation.

# EFFECT ON EVAPORATION OF RELEASES FROM RESERVOIRS ON SALT RIVER, ARIZONA (1)

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## TRACT

By means of the energy-budget method, measurements of evaporation losses from four reservoirs on Salt River, Ariz., were determined to range from 57.5 to 69.9 inches for the 12-month period April 1958 to March 1959. Water is withdrawn from Roosevelt Lake at considerable rates and released through three run-of-the-river reservoirs. Because the water released from Roosevelt Lake is cold, evaporation losses from the downstream reservoirs are considerably less than those from Roosevelt Lake. Evaporation pan coefficients computed for the various reservoirs ranged from 0.53 to 0.65. A base evaporation rate was computed for each reservoir as the evaporation rate that would have occurred had there been no change in energy storage and the net advected energy equalled zero during the year.

The U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the Salt River Valley Water Users Association is making studies of the evaporation losses from the reservoirs in the Salt River reservoir system using the energy-budget method. The results of these studies to date show that there is a considerable difference in the evaporation rates at the four reservoirs in the system. They also show a wide range in the ratio of reservoir to pan evaporation rates. Such studies provide useful information for the better management of water resources, for the planning of future reservoir developments, and for use in the possible application of evaporation retardants to reduce these losses.

The Salt River reservoir system consists of four reservoirs (fig. 1) that are used to store water for irrigation and power. The largest reservoir of the system, formed by Roosevelt Dam, is Roosevelt Lake, with a storage capacity of 1,382,000 acre-feet. The next reservoir is Apache Lake with a storage capacity of 245,000 acre-feet, formed by Horse Mesa Dam 17 miles downstream from Roosevelt Dam. Ten miles below Horse Mesa Dam is Mormon Flat Dam, which is a Canyon Lake with a storage capacity of 58,000 acre-feet. Saguaro Lake, with a storage capacity of 70,000 acre-feet, is formed by Stewart Mountain Dam 10 miles below Mormon Flat Dam. Complete descriptions of the dams have been prepared by the Bureau of Reclamation (2). As shown in figure 1, each reservoir extends a long distance upstream from the dam so that the channel distance from the head of a reservoir to the next dam upstream is only a small fraction of the distance between dams given above.

The operation of the reservoir system depends on spring runoff and irrigation needs. Usually most of the spring runoff is stored and releases are made during the summer for irrigation. These releases are usually made through outlets near the bottom of each reservoir so that the water is much colder than near the surface. All water released passes through the outlet plant at the dam.

The reservoir system is in an arid climate. Mean annual temperature at Phoenix is 69°F. Annual precipitation is about 7 inches, according to Weather Bureau records. Winds are usually light.

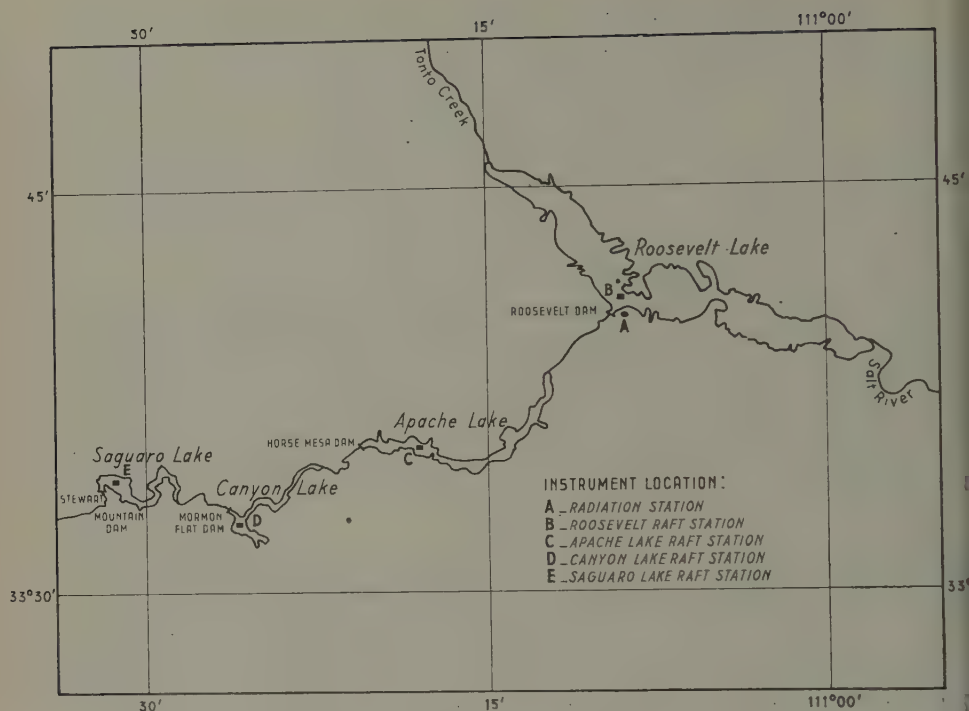


Fig. 1 — Map of Salt River reservoir system showing location of instruments

Evaporation from the reservoirs was determined by means of the energy-budget method. This method is an accounting of all energy entering and leaving a reservoir; the difference between the two is the amount utilized for evaporation, after allowing for the change in energy stored in the reservoir. The instruments needed to measure the various forms of energy were installed in March 1958. At a radiation station located near Roosevelt Dam records of solar and atmospheric radiation and air and wet-bulb temperatures were obtained. Figure 2 shows the pyrheliometer and radiometer at that radiation station. A weekly thermograph to measure water-surface temperature, and a totalizing anemometer to record wind movement approximately 6 feet above the water surface, were installed on a floating raft on each reservoir. Figure 3 shows the Roosevelt raft with anemometer and recorder shelter. Thermal surveys of the reservoirs were made at monthly intervals using a Whitney thermometer. The surveys made at the beginning and the end of the 1958 irrigation season are shown in figure 4. The data collected in connection with the operation of the reservoir system were used to determine the advective energy term for each reservoir and lake. Koberg (1958), in the report on the Lake Mead study, described in detail how each term in the energy budget is evaluated. The computed evaporation from each reservoir using the energy-budget method is given in table 1. This table also gives evaporation from the Weather Bureau class A pan at Roosevelt Lake.

As shown in table 1, the evaporation rates differ considerably on an annual basis and even more so on a monthly basis. For instance, on a monthly basis, evaporation from Roosevelt Lake in July was 12.1 inches and at Canyon Lake it was 4.4 inches, which is a difference of 7.7 inches. On an annual basis, the evaporation from Roosevelt Lake was 69.9 inches and from Canyon Lake it was 57.5 inches, which is a difference of 12.4 inches. These differences are significant.





Fig. 2 — Radiation station at Roosevelt Dam with pyrliometer and radiometer



Fig. 3 — Raft at Roosevelt Lake with thermograph shelter and anemometer.



ficant especially if the reservoirs are under different management. In this case, the reason for the differences should be known so that the apportioning of evaporation losses from the reservoirs could be made on an equitable basis.

TABLE 1

MONTHLY EVAPORATION AS MEASURED AT ROOSEVELT, APACHE, CANYON, AND SAGUARO LAKES AND OBSERVED CLASS A PAN EVAPORATION AT ROOSEVELT LAKE.

Month	Roosevelt Lake		Apache Lake		Canyon Lake		Saguaro Lake		Class A Pan
	Inches	Acre-ft	Inches	Acre-ft	Inches	Acre-ft	Inches	Acre-ft	Inches
April 1958	5.9	4,300	4.0	880	5.1	400	5.2	520	8.84
May	9.2	8,400	5.8	1,250	9.0	700	8.4	840	13.94
June	11.1	10,200	7.7	1,690	5.3	410	8.5	860	17.46
July	12.1	10,400	10.1	2,220	4.4	340	9.7	990	17.88
August	9.2	7,300	7.4	1,640	5.5	420	6.7	670	13.61
September	7.8	5,800	8.7	1,920	5.6	420	5.3	460	10.94
October	5.4	4,400	7.3	1,580	5.3	390	5.3	450	6.09
November	2.1	1,700	5.1	1,100	6.9	520	4.1	370	3.11
Decemb. 1958	.8	700	3.2	690	2.9	220	3.2	310	2.25
January 1959	1.0	800	3.1	680	1.9	150	2.0	200	2.62
February	1.3	1,100	2.2	480	1.3	100	2.1	220	3.12
March 1959	4.0	3,300	2.3	500	4.3	330	2.9	270	8.31
Total	69.9	58,400	66.9	14,630	57.5	4,400	63.4	6,160	108.17

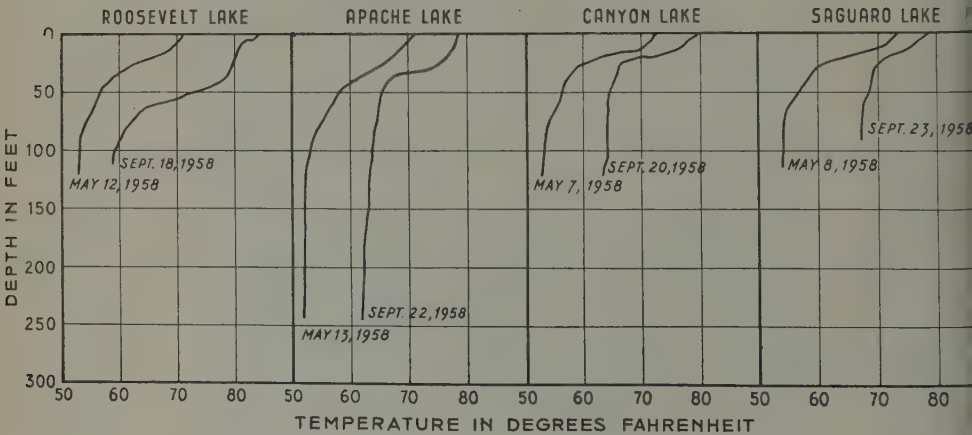


Fig. 4 — Temperature profiles of each reservoir on indicated date.

The operation of the reservoir system, to supply the irrigation needs, changed the temperature structure of the reservoirs, which in turn affected the evaporation rates. The water was supplied mainly from Roosevelt Lake. The monthly releases from the reservoirs are given in table 2. To supply 218,700 acre-feet of irrigation water from Roosevelt Lake at an average temperature of 58.2° F required at least this amount of water in storage before releases started to cause the temperature of inflow averaged 75° F for the period. As shown by the thermal survey for Roosevelt Lake taken on May 12, 1958, (fig. 4) the water was at 58.2° F about 10 feet below the surface and the volume of water below this depth was 197,000 acre-feet.

Before the releases were made, the temperature profiles in May of each reservoir were similar as shown by figure 4. At the end of the irrigation season, the temperature profiles in September for the other reservoirs are considerably different from that of Roosevelt Lake. The temperature profile for Roosevelt Lake in September extended over a greater range and showed a higher temperature than do the profiles for the other reservoirs, as shown in figure 4. The profiles show that considerable mixing occurred in the other reservoirs as a result of the movement of water through them.

TABLE 2

MONTHLY RELEASES OF WATER AND ITS AVERAGE TEMPERATURE AT EACH RESERVOIR

	Roosevelt Lake		Apache Lake		Canyon Lake		Saguaro Lake	
	acre-feet	°F	acre-feet	°F	acre-feet	°F	acre-feet	°F
	29,900	57	40,100	53	40,500	56	35,900	58
	57,100	56	55,000	54	54,400	60	47,100	64
	50,000	58	60,900	57	62,900	63	59,200	67
	56,800	60	67,800	61	70,400	65	74,300	69
	24,900	61	34,600	63	41,500	66	53,700	71
1	218,700		258,400		269,700		270,200	

The average temperatures of the monthly releases for the irrigation period are shown for each reservoir in table 2. For Roosevelt Lake the temperature of outflow ranged from 56° to 58° F, for Apache Lake from 53° to 63° F, for Canyon Lake from 56° to 66° F, and for Saguaro Lake from 58° to 70° F. The average temperature of the water released from Roosevelt Lake was 58.2° F and from Apache, Canyon, and Saguaro Lakes it was 57.6° F, 62.3° F and 66.6° F respectively. No change in temperature could be detected as a result of the flow of water through the reach of channel from the dam to the reservoir below. Therefore, it is concluded that all the rise in temperature occurred during passage of water through the reservoir. The temperature is attributed to the mixing of the warmer water near the lake surface with the colder water that was brought in by inflow.

As the colder water released from Roosevelt Lake was warmed as it passed through most of the reach it had certain effects on evaporation rates. However, some of these effects were delayed until after the irrigation period, so an analysis was made for a complete year. The period chosen

was April 1958 to March 1959. The method used for the analysis was described by Harbeck and others (1959) in the report on Lake Colorado City. This method uses a combination of mass-transfer and energy-budget concepts to compute the effect on evaporation and water temperature resulting from addition or removal of energy in inflow and outflow. For each reservoir, base evaporation was computed as the evaporation that would take place if it assumed that inflow equals outflow and the temperatures are equal, and that the reservoir energy storage at the beginning of the year was the same as that at the end of the year. Using these assumptions an analysis was made for each reservoir. The condition under which base evaporation would take place is used only for comparison with the actual evaporation rates from the reservoirs. In the Salt River system it would mean a hypothetical lake with very little inflow and outflow but having the topographic and meteorological characteristics of the reservoir.

The analysis for Roosevelt Lake indicated that base evaporation for the period was 64.1 inches. The measured evaporation (table 1) was 69.9 inches, which is 8 percent, or in terms of volume, 4,800 acre-feet, more than the base evaporation. The reason for this increase is that the cold water released was replaced by warmer inflowing water and increased the energy storage above that which would occur under base conditions. For the reservoir to be at the average temperature of 58.1°F at the end as at the beginning of the period, energy would have to be dissipated at a higher rate than would occur under base conditions. This was obtained by increasing evaporation, back radiation, and heat conducted to the air.

For Apache Lake the base evaporation rate for the period was computed to be 69.4 inches. The measured evaporation was 66.9 inches (table 1), which is 4 percent, or in terms of volume, 590 acre-feet less than the base evaporation. The reduction in evaporation was caused by the lake having more energy in storage at the end of the period than at the beginning. The average lake temperature at the beginning of the period was 55.4°F and at the end it was 58.5°F, a gain of 3.1 °F. This gain in energy stored resulted from radiant energy, as the net advective energy was approximately zero. Thus radiant energy normally available for evaporation was used to increase the energy stored in the lake.

The base evaporation rate for Canyon Lake was computed to be 67.1 inches for the period. The measured evaporation was 57.5 inches (table 1), which is 14 percent, or in terms of volume, 740 acre-feet less than the base evaporation. The reduction was caused by cooling of water near the surface as a result of the movement of water through the lake. This movement mixed the warmer water at the surface with the cooler water at the bottom so that the temperature of the outflow averaged 4°F more than of the inflow. This reduced the temperature at the water surface which in turn reduced evaporation. Some of the energy that normally would have been available for evaporation was thus lost through the outflow.

The base evaporation rate for Saguaro Lake was computed to be 68.4 inches. The measured evaporation (table 1) was 63.4 inches, which is 7 percent, or in terms of volume, 490 acre-feet less than the base evaporation. The cause of this reduction was the same as for Canyon Lake. The difference in the percentage reduction was that the temperature of the outflow for Saguaro Lake was 3°F more than that of the inflow instead of 4°F as for Canyon Lake. This shows that less energy was lost through the outflow for Saguaro Lake which then had more energy for evaporation.

The overall effect of different evaporation rates was that the total evaporation for the system was 2,980 acre-feet more than the base evaporation. Although releasing relatively cool water from Roosevelt Reservoir resulted in greater evaporation there, amounting to 4,800 acre-feet, the cold water released made the evaporation from the three downstream lakes less than 1,820 acre-feet than what would have occurred for base conditions.

Generally, a run-of-the-river type reservoir would have a lower evaporation rate than a large reservoir where the inflow during the summer is only a small percentage of the storage. The difference in rates depends on what depth releases are made from the large reservoir. The lower evaporation rate for the run-of-the-river type reservoir is a result of the mixing caused by the movement of water through the reservoir. If the mixing could keep the water isothermal in the reservoirs, the greatest reduction in the evaporation rate would then be obtained. F

ery deep run-of-the-river type reservoir, this is very difficult to obtain as evidenced by Apache Lake. In this case a deep run-of-the-river type reservoir may have the same evaporation rate as the large storage reservoir.

Reservoir evaporation is often determined by pan evaporation and a coefficient. The Lake Mead studies (Kohler, 1954) show that this coefficient varies during the year. The variation in this coefficient for the standard class A pan at Roosevelt Lake are shown in table 3. Also shown are coefficients for the other reservoirs using the same pan. Pan coefficients for monthly evaporation from reservoirs in the system ranged from 0.25 to 2.14. For annual evaporation pan coefficients ranged from 0.53 to 0.65. If the coefficients for annual evaporation are computed for each reservoir using the base evaporation, the ratios range from 0.59 to 0.64, which is in agreement with pan coefficients recommended by some hydrologists for use in the arid West. Engineers and hydrologists who estimate reservoir evaporation from pan records should be aware that large amounts of heat usually available for evaporation are sometimes used for water heating instead. Also, they should be aware that a reservoir regularly releasing cold water will have a higher evaporation rate than would be expected. At Lake Mead, the temperature of the outflowing water is normally much lower than that of the inflowing water. About 8 percent of this inflow energy not balanced by outflow energy is being utilized to increase the evaporation rate. Harbeck (1958) computed that if it were possible to skim the warm water from the lake surface instead of releasing cold water from the depths of the reservoir, evaporation would be decreased 8 percent. Kohler and others (1955) in their studies on evaporation from streams and lakes, have developed techniques to adjust lake evaporation where inflow energy is not balanced by outflow energy.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF CLASS A PAN COEFFICIENTS FOR MONTHLY AND ANNUAL EVAPORATION FROM ROOSEVELT RESERVOIR, APACHE LAKE, CANYON LAKE, AND SAGUARO LAKE RESERVOIRS.

Month	Roosevelt Lake	Apache Lake	Canyon Lake	Saguaro Lake
April	0.67	0.45	0.58	0.59
May	.66	.42	.65	.60
June	.63	.44	.30	.49
July	.68	.56	.25	.54
August	.68	.54	.40	.49
September	.73	.80	.51	.49
October	.88	1.20	.87	.85
November	.68	1.65	2.10	1.32
December	.36	2.14	1.18	1.45
1959				
January	.38	1.19	.65	.77
February	.42	.71	.36	.68
March	.48	.28	.46	.35
Annual	.65	.62	.53	.59

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# CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM DIAGRAMS FOR GROUND-WATER SYSTEMS

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*graphiques de l'équilibre chimique pour les systèmes des eaux souterraines.*

UMÉ

L'équilibre chimique de l'eau au contact avec la calcite est exprimée par un pH — quage superposé sur un log-log graphique donnant les activités du bicarbonate contre les du calcium. La solubilité du fer ferreux et les minéraux de la phase solide, qui seraient stable s une solution contenant les activités de 10 per mille du sulfate et 100 per mille du bicarbonate, ou les espèces alliées, est exprimée par un graphique donnant relation stabilité — np avec pH sur l'abscisse, et le potentiel de redox sur l'ordonnée.

Les graphiques peuvent servir pour indiquer si l'eau injectée dans les puits de recharge erait des précipitations, qui pourraient obstruer la couche portante, et ils ont aussi d'autre ications dans les études de la chimie de l'eau dans la nature.

TRACT

Chemical equilibrium in water in contact with calcite is expressed by means of a pH grid lay on a log-log plot of activities of bicarbonate vs. calcium ions. Solubility of ferrous iron the solid-phase minerals that would be stable in a solution containing activities of 10 ppm sulfate and 100 ppm of bicarbonate or related species is expressed by means of a stability-diagram with pH as abscissa and redox potential as ordinate.

The diagrams can be used to tell whether water injected in recharge wells may form preates that may plug the aquifer and have other uses in studies of natural water chemistry.

URAL WATER SYSTEMS

The factors affecting the chemical composition of natural waters are so complex as to be laying. Because of this the theoretical chemical concepts, developed many years ago from y of dilute aqueous solutions, have been used very little in hydrology. It has seemed that simplification needed to apply chemical thermodynamics to natural waters would be so nsive the results would have no practical value. However, in recent years research has shown the chemical behavior of some of the constituents of natural water actually does coincide r closely with what might be predicted theoretically.

Pourbaix (1949) developed a graphical procedure for describing the chemical behavior of in dilute solution in relation to pH and redox potential. This technique has been used nsively by investigators in geochemical studies in the United States in recent years, notably L. M. Garrels (1960) and his co-workers (Huber and Garrels, 1953) to explain deposition etallic ores.

The chemistry of iron in natural water has recently been studied by the U. S./Geological ey (Hem and Cropper, 1959, and Hem, 1960 a and b) using, in part, Pourbaix's procedure. agreement between theoretical and actual behavior of this constituent has been abundantly ed. Most reactions involving iron reach equilibrium rapidly and are well suited to study by s of chemical thermodynamics.

A large amount of work has been done on the chemical behavior of carbonates. Some of the conclusions indicated by the literature are: (1) Reactions by which calcite is dissolved or precipitated are rapid enough to require consideration and control in distribution of water supplies (Fair and Geyer, 1954, p. 647-650); (2) comparisons of the actual pH of a solution and the pH calculated for that solution assuming chemical equilibrium with respect to calcite provide a useful index as to future behavior of the solution when brought into contact with solid-phase calcite (Langelier, 1936); (3) water in pores of a limestone is normally saturated with respect to calcite, (Weyl, 1958). Probably this last conclusion can be extended to any rock in which calcite is present in important quantities.

In its simplest terms, assuming a temperature of 25°C and a pressure of 1 atmosphere, the equilibrium for calcite in water is:



This system does not contain a gas phase and is likely to be the usual condition below the water table. The equilibrium constant  $K_{eq}$  can be computed from the relation

$$\Delta F^\circ = -RT \ln K_{eq}$$

where  $\Delta F^\circ$  is the net change in standard free energy when the reaction goes from left to right,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature in degrees Kelvin, and  $\ln K_{eq}$  is the Napierian (natural) logarithm of the equilibrium constant. Standard free energy values for calcite and the ions involved are available in texts such as that of Latimer (1952). At 25° C, the equilibrium pH for a water may be computed from the mass-action law, assuming activity of calcite to be unity

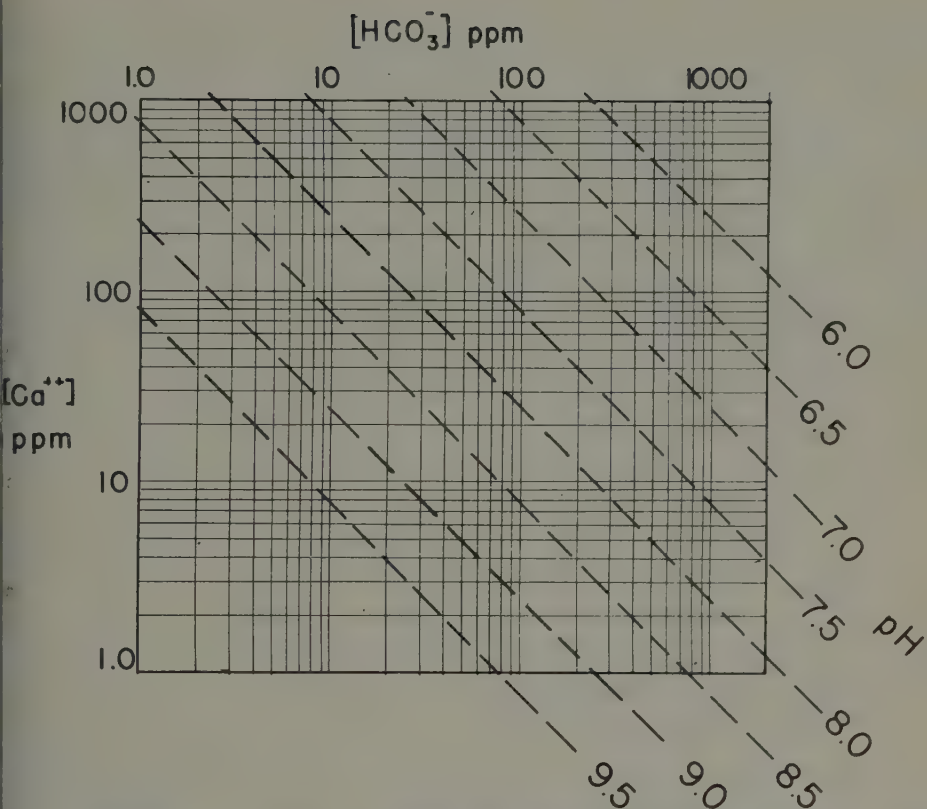
$$\text{pH eq} = -\log \frac{[\text{Ca}^{+2}][\text{HCO}_3^-]}{K_{eq}}$$

The quantities in square brackets are thermodynamic concentrations, or activities of dissolved ions and are computed from the concentrations reported in chemical analyses by means of the Debye-Hückel limiting law. Procedures for making these computations are given by Klotz (1959) and an adaptation of these procedures with graphical aids developed by the writer (Hem, 1960) is particularly adapted for use with data from standard water analyses.

Figure 1 is a graph showing the equilibrium pH computed from the above equation for a solution in contact with calcite in relation to dissolved calcium and bicarbonate activities. The difference between concentrations of calcium and bicarbonate reported in analyses and effective concentrations, or activities may be substantial. In general, the activity of calcium in a solution whose total dissolved solids concentration is near 400 ppm is about 70 percent of the measured concentration of calcium. The bicarbonate activity in such a solution would be about 90 percent of the measured concentration. In a water whose total dissolved solids is about 4000 ppm, the calcium activity is about 40 percent of the measured calcium concentration and bicarbonate activity is about 75 percent of the measured bicarbonate concentration. For waters that contain more than 5000 ppm dissolved solids relationships of measured concentrations to activities are less well defined.

Figure 1 represents conditions at 25° C. The solubility of calcite decreases somewhat with increased temperature (Weyl, 1959), and temperature deviations from 25° C. also affect activity corrections and the pH measurement. Temperature corrections probably are not needed in the practical application of the diagram to waters which are within 15° or so of 25° C. However, it should be remembered that the results obtained in this way are approximations and that in a rigorous application of the principles used one must use more exacting methods. Because the pH of solutions may change in stored samples, measurements of this property should be made in the field when water samples are collected.

(\*) The symbol "c." represents the crystalline solid state of the substance and the symbol "aq." represents the dissolved form.



1 — Equilibrium pH in relation to calcium and bicarbonate activities in solutions in contact with calcite. Total pressure 1 atm., temperature 25°C.

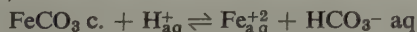
### Chemistry of Iron

Laboratory and theoretical studies (Huber and Garrels, 1953, and Hem and Cropper, 1959) as well as practical experience with the behavior of natural water have shown that equilibrium with respect to some of the commonly found sedimentary iron minerals is to be expected in natural water.

The kinds of equilibria that are most important in iron chemistry include (1) hydrolysis, with or without oxidation or reduction, for example



(2) solution and precipitation reactions involving anions other than  $\text{OH}^-$ , for example



(3) redox equilibria such as



The symbol "e" represents the unit negative electrical charge gained by each ion of iron reduced. Conditions at equilibrium in a system involving water, dissolved ions, and iron-bearing

minerals, such as ferric hydroxide (or hydrated ferric oxide), siderite, or the sulfide minerals such as pyrite can be evaluated by means of equilibrium constants, along with relationships involving the redox potential.

The redox potential of a solution, represented by the symbol Eh, is a measure of the relative intensity of oxidizing or reducing conditions in a system. It is expressed in volts and at equilibrium is related to the proportions of oxidized and reduced forms present. The relationship can be expressed by standard equations of chemical thermodynamics.

The standard potential,  $E^\circ$ , of a redox system is the potential under standard conditions when unit activities of participating substances are present. It is related to standard free energy change in a reaction by the equation

$$\Delta F^\circ = -n f E^\circ$$

where  $n$  is the number of unit negative charges shown in the redox reaction and  $f$  is the Faraday

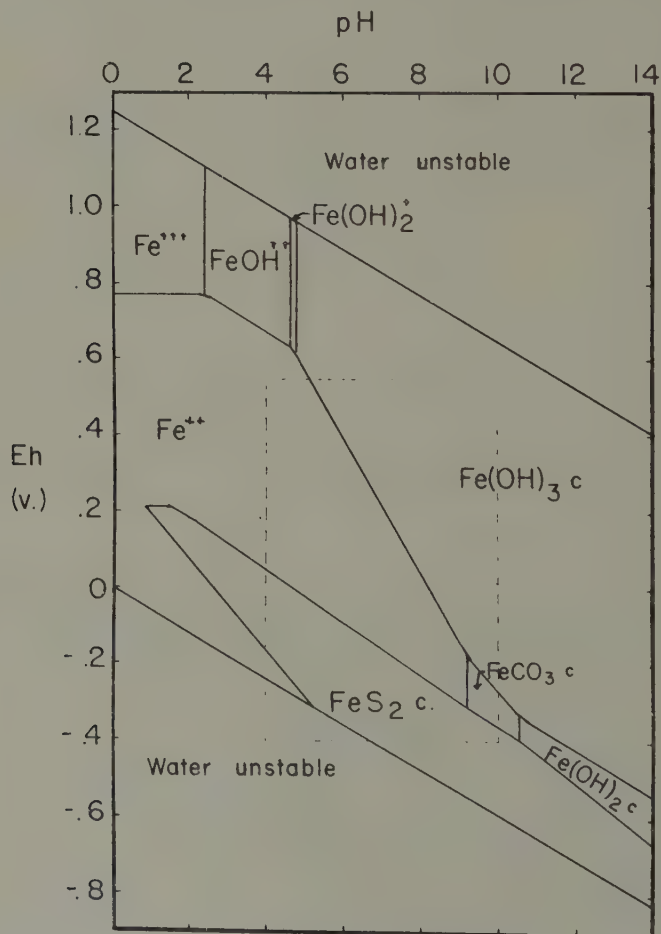


Fig. 2 — Stability fields for aqueous system in which maximum dissolved activities are : Iron as Fe 0.1 ppm, carbonate species as  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  100 ppm, sulfur species as  $\text{SO}_4^{--}$  10 ppm. 1 atm. pressure, 25°C.

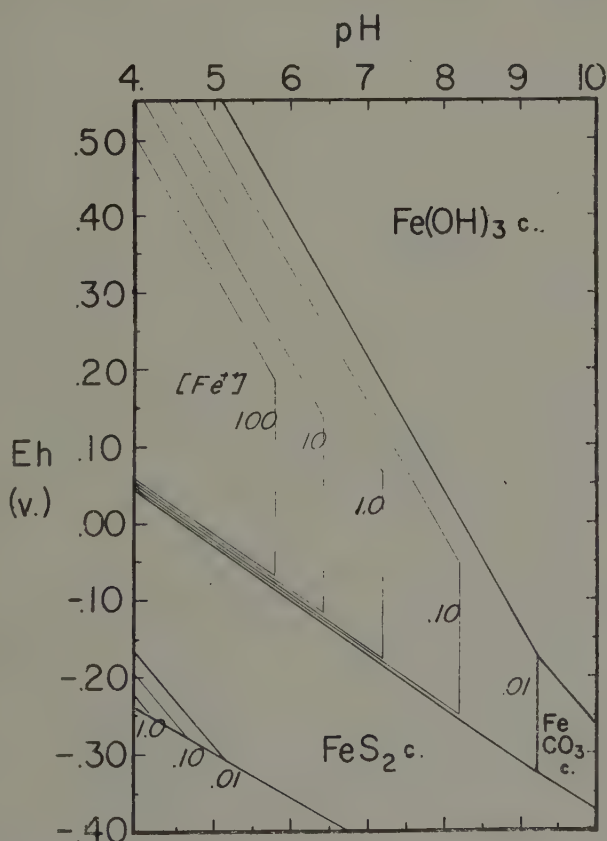
tant, in units that give a potential in volts. The redox potential in systems not under standard conditions is given by the Nernst equation:

$$E = E^{\circ} + \frac{RT}{nf} \ln \frac{[\text{oxidized species}]}{[\text{reduced species}]}$$

Algebraic signs of  $Eh$  and  $E^{\circ}$  are arbitrarily assigned. In Pourbaix's work and in geochemical literature, increasingly oxidizing conditions are represented by increasingly positive potential values.

Figure 2 is a stability-field or  $Eh$  -  $pH$  diagram of a hypothetical system containing dissolved iron and a constant activity of ions derived from dissolved carbon dioxide, such as bicarbonate, and of ions derived from sulfur, such as sulfate. The boundaries were computed by equilibrium calculations, and show the conditions of  $Eh$  and  $pH$  at which the common ionic species of iron would be stable. Stability fields for solids show those areas where activity of iron in solution would be less than 0.01 ppm. The nature of the solid formed depends on the form and amount of ions present, as well as on  $Eh$  and  $pH$ .

The field of stability shown for pyrite entails oxidation and reduction of sulfur, and since these reactions are slow they may not be at equilibrium in natural water systems.



3 — Dissolved iron in relation to  $pH$  and  $Eh$ . Carbonate species as  $HCO_3^- = 100$  ppm, sulfur species as  $SO_4^{--} = 10$  ppm.



Otherwise, however, the diagram probably represents the factors controlling iron solubility with reasonable accuracy.

Figure 3 is an enlargement of the area of figure 2 between pH 4 and 10 and between E<sub>h</sub> +.55 volts and -.40 volts. This covers the usual range of groundwater systems. On the diagram are shown the corresponding positions of the solid phase boundaries for the indicated iron activities from 0.01 ppm to 100 ppm. In effect, these lines represent iron solubility contours for the system in consideration, and can be used to explain and predict the behavior of iron dissolved in ground water.

In that part of the field where iron solubility lines are parallel to the  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$  boundary the system would be in equilibrium with this solid and dissolved iron is a function of E<sub>h</sub> and pH. Where the lines are vertical, the dissolved iron would be in equilibrium with siderite (ferrous carbonate) and dissolved iron is a function of pH and total available dissolved carbonate species. If pyrite is present, oxidation of the sulfur to  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , may occur, releasing ferrous iron in the process, although the equilibrium may not be strictly applicable here. At a very low pH and E<sub>h</sub> the pyrite may be reduced to give  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and ferrous iron.

Measurement of E<sub>h</sub> in natural waters is subject to difficulties. Generally the amounts of the dissolved ions present which set the E<sub>h</sub> of a ground-water system are small, and even short contact of the solution with air introduces enough oxygen so that the measurement is indicative of the effect of dissolved oxygen and not of the system that controlled the E<sub>h</sub> underground out of contact with air. In some instances, as where measuring electrodes can be inserted in the discharge pipe of a flowing well, a dependable value of E<sub>h</sub> can be fairly easily obtained. William Back and Ivan Barnes (written communication) in recent research in the U.S. Geological Survey have developed measuring techniques that are useful in more difficult situations and reliable and more extensive information on the E<sub>h</sub> of ground waters should eventually result.

If complicating factors that may sometimes occur, such as the formation of chemical complexes, are ignored it is evident from figure 3 that any water containing 1.0 ppm of iron or more is going to retain that amount of iron in solution only at low pH, intermediate E<sub>h</sub>, or both. Measurement of pH is generally easier than E<sub>h</sub>, and from figure 3, the iron content and the pH of a ground water, the E<sub>h</sub> can be estimated, provided one knows which solid form is involved in the equilibrium.

Over the entire area of figure 3 iron in solution is controlled by four somewhat interrelated variables, E<sub>h</sub>, pH,  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$  and  $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]$ . If a water contains 1 ppm of iron at pH 7, and the E<sub>h</sub> is +.10 volt the dominant solid phase form of iron present is ferric hydroxide, when bicarbonate activity does not exceed 100 ppm and sulfate activity does not exceed 10 ppm. Siderite could not be the dominant solid phase at this level of bicarbonate activity, at pH 7 unless the E<sub>h</sub> were lower. If the dominant solid is pyrite the equilibrium E<sub>h</sub> would be about -0.16 volt, but this condition is less likely than the other possibilities.

If the activity of bicarbonate species is decreased by a factor of 10, the vertical iron concentration lines are shifted to the right by 1 pH unit and the stability field for siderite at 0.01 ppm activity of iron disappears. At low levels of bicarbonate, therefore, the influence of carbonate equilibria on iron content is not very important at pH 7. If the bicarbonate activity were increased to 1,000 ppm, the presence of 1 ppm  $\text{Fe}^{++}$  at pH 7 would not be possible in equilibrium. The pH would have to be lower ( $\leq 6.2$ ) to permit 1 ppm of iron to be retained in solution.

Changes in sulfur activity have only a minor effect on the position of pyrite boundaries. Changes of a factor of 10 in total sulfur species move the boundary of the pyrite field less than 0.01 volt.

Huber (1958) has discussed some aspects of iron equilibria in systems containing carbonate and sulfur.

The chemical relationships expressed in figures 1-3 are useful in studies of chemistry of ground waters in relation to geology or hydrology. Changes in carbonate equilibria are involved in processes of calcite cementation of sandstones and the deposition of calcite at points where water enters a pumped well. Diagrams such as figures 2 and 3 aid in predicting redox potentials in ground water environments. Both the carbonate and iron equilibria may be upset when ground waters of different composition are mixed. An important application of the diagrams therefore arises in the artificial recharge of aquifers.

### *Artificial Recharge*

Published literature on artificial recharge through 1954 has been annotated by Todd (1959). Completed and currently operating experiments for introducing recharge through wells have revealed a number of factors that affect the rate at which wells will take water. Generally many factors of recharge and discharge of the groundwater reservoir will occur as time passes. The well must be capable of operating for a long time without any important loss of transmissibility of the aquifer. In the petroleum industry water injection has been used for maintaining pressures in oil fields, and to increase oil recovery. Some of the problems encountered in these field operations are similar to those of artificial recharge. However, a low rate of injection used in oil recovery operations, and their success is evaluated in a different way than the success of a recharge project.

If the recharge water contains suspended solids, the well into which the water is introduced will rapidly become clogged by deposition of these solids unless the passages through which the water moves are very large. Clarification of such a water is generally necessary (Calif. state Water Pollution Control Board, 1954, p. 21).

Air bubbles in the injected water may lodge in the aquifer and lower the rate at which the well can be recharged (Sniegocki, R.T., written communication 1958).

Microbiota in the recharge water may become established in the well, and their growth may result in slime deposits that interfere with the movement of water into the aquifer. In experiments in California, Laverty (1952) noted that a large and continuing dose of chlorine controlled these microorganisms.

If the introduced water contains a proportion of monovalent to divalent cations that differs greatly from that in the water native to the aquifer, cation exchange with clay minerals present in the aquifer will take place. The dispersal or flocculation of clays brought about by the exchange process may alter the transmissibility of the aquifer. Literature of artificial recharge does not show that this effect is common, but Hughes and Pfister (1947) reported swelling of clays sometimes results from injection of water in secondary recovery of oil. They suggested the use of brines to avoid loss of transmissibility.

Chemical precipitation of carbonates and of iron compounds evidently is a major problem. Iron carbonate precipitation was reported by Banks (1953) in wells at Manhattan Beach, California. Iron oxide precipitation commonly occurs during recharge operations and has been reported at Mid Prairie, Arkansas (personal communication, Sniegocki, R.T.), Camp Peary, Virginia (Perstrom, D.J., 1947), and in the Netherlands (Krul and Liefvrick, 1946), to name a few of the references in published literature.

When recharge is brought about by spreading water at the land surface or by related techniques, the soil or other materials through which the water passes acts as a filter and chemical precipitates in the same way as for naturally occurring recharge. Hence, the difficulties encountered for introduction of recharge through wells are largely avoided. Other kinds of problems with the surface-spreading techniques, to be sure, but they are not usually the ones considered

The compatibility of native ground water with a water proposed for injection can be evaluated by means of figure 1. If the water to be injected is substantially supersaturated with

respect to calcite and the native water has a pH the same as or higher than the water to be injected, calcium carbonate will be precipitated in the injection well and in the aquifer and movement of water will be impaired. Even though the amount precipitated per unit volume of water might be small, the large volumes of water and the recycling of the system inherent in full-scale recharge program might make such deposits a major threat to practicability. Although many surface waters are unsaturated with respect to calcite, supersaturation because of loss of dissolved carbon dioxide is common, especially in water that has been stored in reservoirs. If necessary the pH of injected water could be lowered by introducing  $\text{CO}_2$  or other means, so that the risk of calcite precipitation could be avoided.

With the stability field diagram, analyses of the native water and water proposed for injection and some knowledge as to iron minerals present in the aquifer, proposed recharge experiments can be evaluated for possible iron difficulties. Under some conditions excessive amounts of iron might be dissolved by the introduced water, but more commonly plugging of well and aquifer by precipitates of iron constitute the major difficulty.

If the proposed recharge water contains iron, any contact with air is likely to cause ferric hydroxide to precipitate. The Eh of aerated water will generally range from about 0.35 to 0.4 volt. Figure 3 shows that 0.01 ppm of iron can remain in solution at Eh 0.45 volt only if pH is less than 5.7. Hence, ironbearing recharge water is almost certain to deposit iron in the recharge well. Closed systems where ground water containing iron is withdrawn for cooling purposes and returned through an adjacent well may be expected to operate successfully only if they are sealed from possible contact of water with air.

If the aquifer to be recharged contains ironbearing water and iron minerals, the addition or replacement of this water with aerated recharge water will precipitate ferric hydroxide where the two waters contact each other or are mixed together. The places where precipitation will occur and the amount of iron deposited is somewhat difficult to predict because it depends on the way the injected recharge water moves through the saturated or dewatered parts of the aquifer.

If the aquifer contains siderite the aerated water will tend to convert this mineral to ferric hydroxide, although the conversion may occur only on the surface of the mineral crystals. If pyrite is present, however, the oxidizing injected water may attack it, dissolve considerable amounts of iron and probably redeposit the iron as ferric hydroxide in the aquifer along the direction of movement of the injected water front. Some of the water pumped back out of such a system also could be rather high in dissolved iron.

Where sulfur-reducing bacteria are present, iron in the recharge water could be deposited as sulfide. Alcorn (1943) noted this effect in oil recovery operations.

Remedial measures may sometimes be feasible, but it seems very likely that highly ironbearing ground-water systems cannot be successfully recharged by injection of surface water through wells. Although the need for chlorination to overcome biological problems in conditioning recharge water seems established, a water that contains a residual of dissolved chlorine has an Eh far above that of aerated water, and problems resulting from iron precipitation from such a water are likely to be severe if the system to which the chlorine-bearing water is added contains pyrite or much iron in solution.

The need for moving large volumes of water in a large-scale project for recharge through wells magnifies the importance of relatively small concentrations of potentially troublesome substances, such as iron. Large-scale recharge of aquifers differs from oil-field operations, for example, because of the very large volumes of water required in recharge and the cyclical removal of the water for use, to be replaced by further recharge.

The techniques for study of chemical data described in this paper are believed to have well established validity and should be particularly useful where ground-water recharge by injection through wells is planned. The diagrams also are useful in studying other aspects of natural water chemistry.

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# VARIATION IN SURFACE ELEVATION OF THE NISQUALLY GLACIER MT. RAINIER, WASHINGTON

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## ABSTRACT

Variation in surface elevations of the Nisqually Glacier has been recorded since 1942 the annual measurement of three profiles across the glacier, designated as nos. 1, 2, and 3, located 0.5, 1.0, and 1.7 miles respectively from the terminus, at approximate mean elevations of 5,250, 6,000, and 6,800 feet. A fourth profile, 2-A, located 1.4 miles from the terminus at an approximate mean elevation of 6,450 was measured from 1948 to 1954. These profiles cross the glacier approximately normal to the direction of flow. Additional data are available from measurements made at profiles no. 1 and no. 2 in 1931, 1932 and 1941. The results of the measurements show that a wave or surge has been moving down the glacier.

The mean elevation at profile no. 3 began to increase in 1945 and continued through 1959 when it was 83 feet higher than in 1944. The general trend from 1952 to 1959 has been a decrease in elevation with a net change of 30 feet since 1951. The surface elevation at profile no. 2 continued to decrease through 1948, but began to increase in 1949 and continued to do so through 1957 in which year the mean elevation was 102 feet higher than in 1948. The wave became apparent at profile no. 1 in 1954 or 9 years after it first became evident at profile no. 3. The mean elevation has continued to increase and in 1959 was 70 feet higher than in 1954. The increase in surface elevation has been accompanied by a pronounced increase in rate of movement of the glacier.

A program of mapping the Nisqually Glacier at 5 year intervals was initiated by Lowell Evans, Superintendent, Tacoma City Light Department and G. L. Parker, District Engineer, U. S. Geological Survey in 1931 as a means of recording changes in the glacier. The 5 year mapping program has been carried out. A map of the glacier in 1951 and 1956 has recently been published. In 1931, along with setting markers for the determination of movement, two profiles were measured across the glacier, referred to in this paper as profile no. 1 and no. 2. These are located 0.5 and 1.0 miles respectively from the terminus (1956 position). These profiles were remeasured in 1932 and 1933 after which measurements were discontinued. The author, in 1941, while mapping the glacier resumed measurement of these two profiles. In 1942 a third profile, no. 3, and in 1948 a fourth, no. 2-A, was established. These are located 1.7 and 1.4 miles respectively upglacier from the terminus. The location of the four profiles is shown in the inset on figure 1. The measurements of these profiles have provided a record of pronounced variations in the surface elevation of the glacier and have also provided a record of a wave or surge that has been moving down the glacier. This paper will be devoted primarily to a description of the growth and movement of this wave. Before starting this discussion, a brief description of the glacier is in order.

The Nisqually Glacier is located on the southwest flank of Mt. Rainier. It is one of over 20 glaciers on the mountain and one of 6 that radiate from the summit of the mountain like the arms of a starfish. From the summit of the mountain to the terminus (1956 position) it has a length of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles, in which distance it has a range in elevation of 10,000 feet. The terminus, as shown on the 1956 map, was at an elevation of 4,400 feet. It is a valley glacier and its greatest width does not exceed one-half mile. The Wilson Glacier, a cirque glacier with upper limits at about an elevation of 10,000 feet, is tributary to the Nisqually Glacier on



at or west side, between the elevations of 7,200 and 8,600 feet. The observations on the Nisqually Glacier on which this paper is based are downglacier from the confluence with the Wilson Glacier. The Nisqually Glacier, as measured on the 1956 map (and partly on the map of Mt. Rainier National Park) has an area of 1070 acres and the Wilson Glacier an area of 340 acres or total of 1410 acres, 2.2 square miles. The distribution of area in relation to elevation is tabulated below.

Section	Area, Acres	Percent of Total	Cumulative Percentage
Above 12,000	160	11.4	11.4
10,000 to 12,000	195	13.8	25.2
8,000 to 10,000	450	31.8	57.0
6,000 to 8,000	460	32.6	89.6
Below 6,000	145	10.4	100.0
Total	1410		

The above figures show that about one-fourth of the area is above 10,000 and over one-half above 8,000 feet in elevation. The median elevation is approximately 8,400 feet.

As previously mentioned, two profile lines were established in 1931, a third one in 1942 and a fourth one in 1948. The results of the measurements of these four profiles will be summarized in the following paragraphs, starting with the uppermost and moving downglacier. Profiles for selected years are shown graphically in figure 1.

The uppermost profile, no. 3, is located 1.7 miles from the terminus at an approximate elevation of 6,800 feet, a short distance below the confluence of the Wilson and Nisqually Glaciers. As reported in a letter, dated June 7, 1943 to Francois Matthes, who was then Chairman, Committee on Glaciers, American Geophysical Union,

«This profile was established with the thought in mind that changes observed here might indicate future changes to be expected on the lower glacier and also give some information on the relation between changes in the various altitude zones».

The data obtained at this profile in subsequent years has proved to be far more important than envisioned at the time.

Profile no. 3 was first measured on August 21, 1942. The first remeasurement in 1943 showed an average increase in elevation of approximately 5 feet. The lowest point of the profile was the same elevation in both years, and was near the right or west side. The 1944 measurement showed a decrease in elevation of 8 feet. This measurement, however, was one month later than the 1943 measurement. If it had been made at the same time of year, the difference would have probably been about 4 or 5 feet instead of 8 feet. The surface as recorded by the 1944 measurements was the lowest observed during the observations that have been made at this location. Successive measurements at this profile showed a rise each year through 1951. Measurements were not made in 1950 as the east edge of the glacier had raised to such an extent that the reference point was covered with ice. In reviewing the changes from year to year, the most significant difference was the pronounced filling in near the right side during the two year period 1949 to 1951. As shown on figure 1, the filling in along this section of the profile was well over 100 feet during the 1949-51 interval. Much of the ice that filled in this area very likely originated from the Wilson Glacier, as reference to the map shows that an extension of the center line of the Wilson Glacier would come through this section of the profile. The surface, as measured in 1951, was at the highest point recorded in the current series of observations. Reference to photographs indicates that the surface in 1950 may have been equally as high or even higher. In the absence

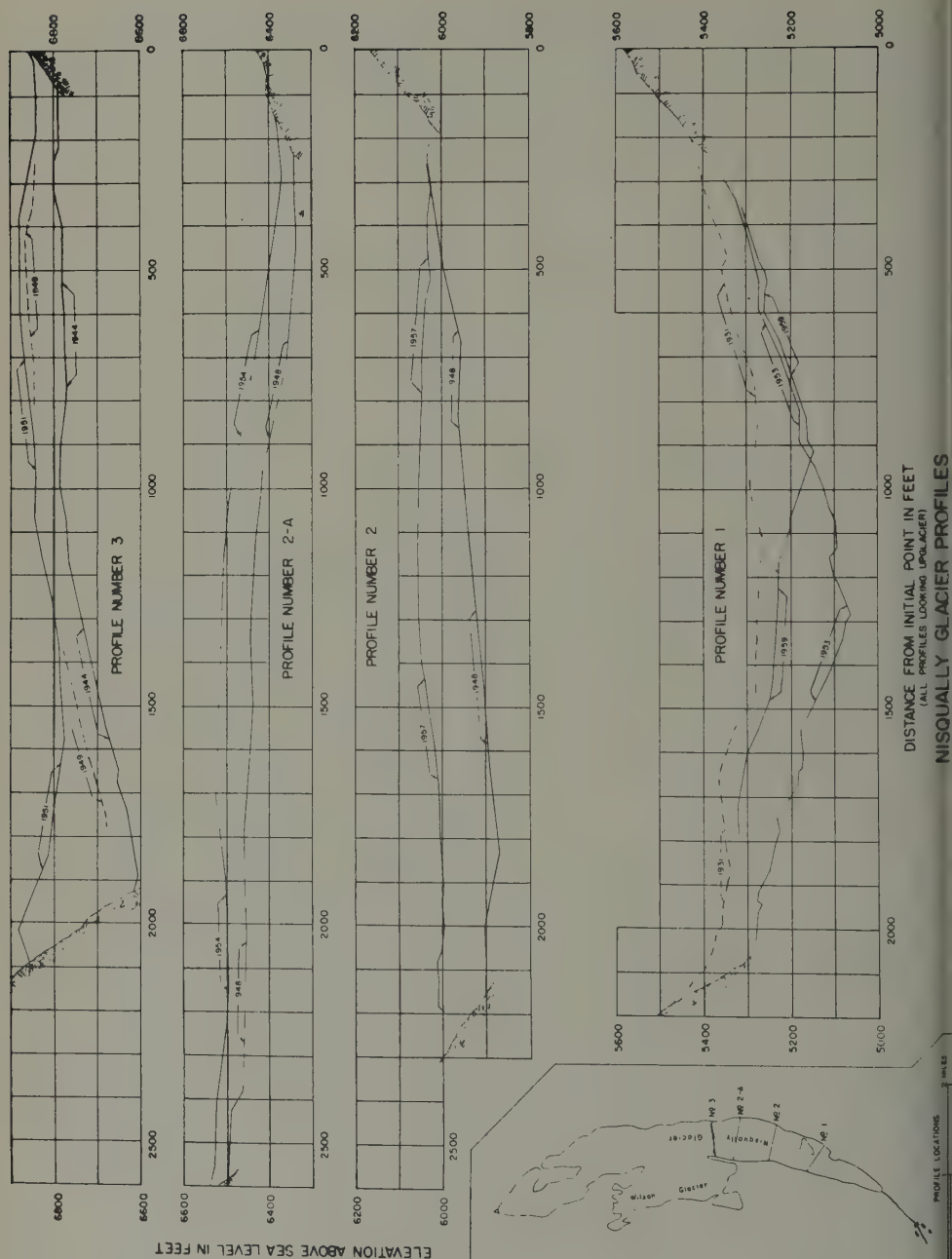


Fig. 1

definite information to the contrary, 1951 is therefore being considered as the best year. The results since 1951 have fluctuated. Both 1952 and 1953 showed a decrease in year whereas 1954 showed a slight increase; 1955 was a year of slight decrease, and 1956 pronounced increase; 1957 and 1958 both showed marked decreases with an increase in 1959. The largest increase, 21 feet, was between the years 1955 and 1956, and the most pronounced decrease, 29 feet, between 1957 and 1958. The mean elevation in 1951 was 83 feet higher than in 1944 and in 1959 was 30 feet lower than in 1951 or 53 feet higher than the low of 1944. The maximum difference between 1944 and 1951 was 225 feet.

In view of the continuing rise in the surface elevation noted at profile no. 3, an additional profile, located 1.4 miles from the terminus roughly mid-way between no. 2 and no. 3, designated no. 2-A, was established in 1948. It is at an approximate mean elevation of 6450. This was measured annually, except 1950, from 1948 through 1954; and only partially measured in 1950 and 1955 as the glacier was so badly broken up that it was impracticable to cross the glacier on the profile alignment. No further attempts have been made to measure this profile since 1955. During the six years of available record, there was a net increase in the average elevation of 56 feet; 51 feet occurring during the three year interval 1948 to 1951. The years 1952 and 1953 both showed a slight decrease with 1954 showing an increase which more than offset the loss in 1952 and 1953.

Profile no. 2 is located 1.0 miles from the terminus at an approximate mean elevation of 6000 feet. This profile was first measured in 1931 in connection with the establishment of a line of markers for measuring movement. It was remeasured in 1932 and 1933 after which measurements were discontinued. When remeasured in 1932, it showed an average increase of 18 feet. Further comparable data is not available until 1936, in which year a map was made of the lower portion of the glacier. A profile, as developed from this map, shows an increase of 23 feet since 1932. Measurements of this profile were resumed in 1941, in which year the mean elevation was 102 feet lower than in 1936. Whether or not a higher elevation was reached between 1932 and 1941 than shown on the 1936 map is not known. Measurements at this profile showed a continuous annual decrease in elevation through 1948, total for the seven year period 1941-1948 amounting to 51 feet. The increasing thickness of the ice or increased surface elevation noted at profile no. 3 since 1945 became apparent at profile no. 2 in 1949. In that year the west or right half of the glacier showed an appreciable increase in elevation whereas the left half continued to decrease. By 1950 the entire profile showed an increase in elevation. This increase continued each year through 1957, at which time the mean elevation for the entire profile was 102 feet higher than in 1948 with a maximum difference of 135 feet. The surface in 1958 was 9 feet lower than in 1957 and in 1959 was essentially the same as in 1958. It would appear, therefore, that the crest of the wave reached profile no. 2 in 1957; and the trend since then has been a decrease in elevation. The 1960 observations will probably show a more pronounced decrease at this station.

Profile no. 1, located 0.5 miles from the terminus at an approximate mean elevation of 6000 feet, was also first measured in 1931 in connection with setting a line of markers to determine rates of movement. A measurement in 1932 showed a decrease in elevation of 4 feet. No other comparable measurements were made until 1941. A profile as developed from the 1936 map, showed a decrease of 9 feet since 1931. It is of interest to note that during this same five year interval, 1931-36, there was an increase of 41 feet in mean elevation at profile no. 2. Measurements at profile no. 1 in 1941 showed that during the five year interval from 1936 to 1941 there was an average decrease in elevation of 37 feet. If the rise in surface elevation at profile no. 2 between 1931 and 1936 extended down to profile no. 1, it occurred sometime between 1936 and 1941. It seems doubtful that any rise did occur. The surface along this profile continued to lower in elevation each year through 1954, except for a short section near the right edge which showed a slight increase since 1953 but the mean elevation for the entire profile decreased. The net change from 1931 to 1954 amounted to an average of 136 feet, and since 1941 an average of 90 feet. The change in elevation along this profile was much less pronounced in the left or east one-third than in the right or west two-thirds. Although the decrease in average elevation for the period

1931 to 1954 was 136 feet, the maximum difference as shown by figure 1 exceeded 200 feet. The first indication of an increase in surface elevation at this profile appeared in 1954 when a portion near the right edge showed an increase, whereas most of the rest of the profile showed a decrease. Considering the entire profile, the net change was a decrease of 2 feet from 1953 to 1954 although in the section 1,600 to 2,000 feet from the reference point there was an average net increase of 4 feet. The east or left one-third of profile no. 1 has continued to decrease a matter of a few feet per year, whereas the right or west two-thirds has shown a pronounced increase starting in 1949. During the five year period 1954 through 1959 for the section 900 to 1,600 feet from the reference point, the average increase in surface elevation was 111 feet and for the section between 1,600 and 2,000 the average increase in elevation was 77 feet. The elevation of the approximate west two-thirds of this profile will undoubtedly continue to increase for the next few years. Inasmuch as the crest of the wave has apparently passed profile no. 2, the left one-third of profile no. 2 will probably not be affected and will continue to decrease in elevation.

The foregoing paragraphs have briefly discussed the changes that have been observed in the four profiles. The data provided by these profile measurements indicate that a wave or surge has been moving down the glacier. The course of this wave can best be visualized by reference to figure 2 which shows the annual mean elevation for the four profiles. At profile no. 3 there was a continual increase in the mean surface elevation from 1944 to 1951. Thereafter the general

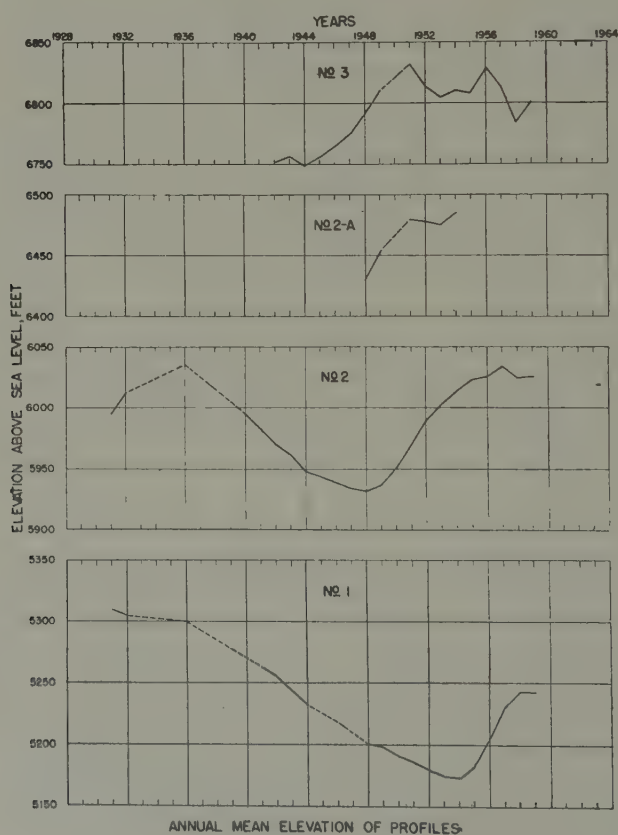
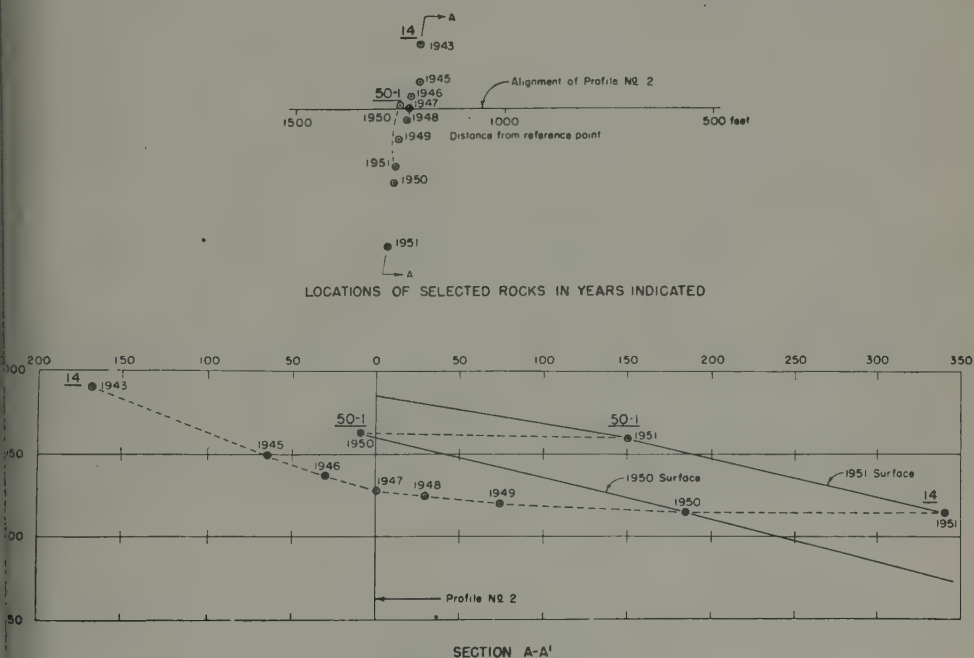


Fig. 2

trend has been a decrease in elevation but with annual fluctuations. At profile no. 2 there was an increase from 1931 to 1936. Sometime between 1936 and 1941 this trend was reversed as the 1941 surface was 53 feet below that in 1936. This decrease continued through 1948. Starting with 1949 the surface elevation increased continually through 1957 and has been fluctuating both up and down since then. At profile no. 1 there was a continual decrease in surface elevations from 1931 through 1953. In 1954 a section of the profile near the right side showed an increase in elevation even though the mean elevation for the entire profile was less than in 1953.

The increase in surface elevation which first became apparent at profile no. 3 in 1945 became evident at profile no. 2 in 1949 or four years later, and at profile no. 1 in 1954 or nine years later. The distance from profile no. 3 to no. 2 is 3,500 feet. The wave, therefore, was moving down the glacier at an average rate of almost 900 feet per year in this area during the four year period 1945-1949. The distance from profile no. 2 to no. 1 along the main ice stream is about 2,200 feet. The wave moved forward in this area at a rate of about 440 feet per year.

The rate of movement of this wave is of particular interest when considered along with the known data on the rate of movement of marked boulders on the glacier surface. The rate of movement at profile no. 3 has only been determined for one year. Several markers set near the alignment of profile no. 3 in 1944 were relocated on 1945 and showed a maximum movement of 250 feet for the year interval. During the same year the maximum movement at profile no. 2, 3,500 feet downglacier, was only a matter of 50 to 60 feet or only about one-fifth to one-fourth of the movement at profile no. 3. Considerable information has been obtained on the rate of movement near profile no. 2. During the period 1943-47 the average maximum rate of movement was found to be about 50 to 60 feet per year. Following the increase in surface elevation first observed in 1949, there was an increase in the rate of annual movement of marked boulders



## NISQUALLY GLACIER

Fig. 3



starting in 1950. This increased each year through 1958, reaching a value of somewhat over 400 feet from 1957 to 1958. The movement from 1958 to 1959 was only about 300 feet, although there was no marked change in the surface elevation in this area. As previously pointed out, the wave first became apparent at profile no. 2 in 1949. The maximum rate of movement observed in 1949 in the vicinity of profile no. 2 was not appreciably different from that observed in previous years, 50 to 60 feet per year. Observations in 1950 showed a maximum of about 100 feet for the preceding year. Observations in 1945 showed that the annual movement near profile no. 3 was four to five times as much as at profile no. 2. If this ratio continued, the movement near profile no. 3 for 1949 to 1950 would have been approximately 700 feet per year.

When the wave first became evident at profile no. 2, the maximum annual movement was about 50 to 60 feet per year. The wave, however, had moved from profile no. 3 to no. 2 at a rate of almost 900 feet per year. It is evident that the wave moves along the glacier at a much faster rate than the ice mass, at least the surface of the ice mass. The velocity below the surface, in the lower section of the glacier, is evidently much faster than at the surface.

Figure 3 attempts to visualize and represent the actual movement or change in the glacier surface. Two rocks, no. 14 and no. 50-1, as shown in the upper part of figure 3 were essentially on a line normal to the profile alignment but different distances therefrom. The longitudinal section, lower part of figure 3, shows the positions and elevations of these two rocks in 1943 and 1951. From this it is seen that in each case the elevation of the rocks was within two or three feet of the same value each year. The surface, in general, was 30 to 40 feet higher in 1951 than in 1950. This rise in surface elevation is evidently due to the ice moving faster in the lower part of the glacier than near the surface. The path of travel for rock no. 14 for the years 1943-49 has also been indicated. Similar illustrations could be prepared from the available data.

The wave moved from profile no. 2 to no. 1, a distance of 2,200 feet in five years or 440 feet per year. During the five year period, 1949 to 1954 the maximum annual movement near profile no. 2 increased from 50 to 60 feet to over 300 feet per year. The maximum movement observed from 1953 to 1954 was therefore appreciably less than the average annual forward progress of the wave.

The data presented in this paper shows that an increase in the surface elevation of Nisqually Glacier originating above the 7,000 foot elevation moved downglacier as a wave. The wave travelled a distance of 5,700 feet in a nine year period or an average of over 600 feet per year. The forward advance of this wave was at a much faster rate than the observed rate of surface movement. The forward movement of the wave and the increasing elevation of the glacier surface was accompanied by a pronounced increase in the annual rate of surface movement. Near the 6,000 foot elevation the maximum annual rate of movement increased from about 50 feet per year for the period 1943 through 1947 to a maximum of over 400 feet during the year 1957 to 1958. This increase in surface elevation is presumed due to a higher velocity of ice movement within the glacier than at the surface. The wave has now reached a point within one-half mile of the terminus which has shown a continual recession since 1918 when annual observations were started by the Park Service. From historical data, it appears that recession of the terminus has been continuous since about 1885 and even for some time prior thereto. The data now available emphasizes the fact that changes observed at the terminus of a glacier are not indicative of what is happening to the glacier as a whole.

# PARTIE ADMINISTRATIVE

## A. — A. I. H. S. — I. A. S. H.

### SYMPOSIUM ON GROUNDWATER RESOURCES IN ARID ZONES, 1961

This symposium is being arranged by our Association in collaboration with Unesco. At all probability it will take place in Athens during the third quarter of 1961. Exact detail will be given in the next issue.

National committees of adherent countries are requested to seek for authors able to offer papers suitable for this symposium. The general programme is that which was given on page 19 of Bulletin No. 15.

The title, author's name and summary of each paper should reach the Secretary of the International Association of Scientific Hydrology by the 1st. February, 1961, at the latest. The complete text of the paper with its accessories should reach him before the 1st. June 1961. The accessories in question are the figures, drawn on tracing paper on cloth and ready for reproduction, also, should such be necessary, photographs, as few in number as possible. The text should not exceed 15 pages of double-spaced typescript. The figures should be numbered and each bear the name of the author on the reverse.

National committees should kindly examine the scientific value of each paper submitted before forwarding it to the I.A.S.H. Secretariat. They should refuse those papers which have already been published elsewhere. A selection committee of the Groundwater

### COLLOQUE SUR LES RESSOURCES EN EAUX SOUTERRAINES DANS LES ZONES ARIDES, 1961

Ce Colloque est organisé par notre Association en collaboration avec l'Unesco. Il aura très vraisemblablement lieu à Athènes au cours du dernier trimestre de 1961. Des précisions seront données dans le prochain bulletin.

Dès à présent, les Comités Nationaux des pays adhérents sont priés de rechercher les auteurs pouvant présenter des communications intéressantes pour ce colloque. Le programme général est celui indiqué dans le bulletin n° 15, page 19.

Les titres, noms des auteurs et un résumé devront nous parvenir au plus tard le 1<sup>er</sup> février 1961. Les textes complets avec leurs annexes parviendront au Secrétariat de l'A.I.H.S. avant le 1<sup>er</sup> juin 1961. Les annexes envisagées sont les figures, sur papier transparent, préparées pour la reproduction et le cas échéant (mais en nombre aussi réduit que possible) des photographies. Les textes ne peuvent dépasser 15 pages dactylographiées à double interligne. Les figures seront numérotées et porteront le nom de l'auteur au verso.

Les dirigeants des comités nationaux voudront bien faire examiner la valeur scientifique des communications présentées avant de les faire parvenir au Secrétariat de l'A.I.H.S.. Ils refuseront les rapports publiés antérieurement. Un comité de sélection de la

Commission of I.A.S.H. will decide which papers shall be given priority in being published.

Papers reaching the secretariat after the 1st. June 1961 will not be discussed at the symposium.

Thanks to the generosity of Unesco, grants-in-aid similar to those which have been distributed at other symposia will be available also on this occasion.

Commission des Eaux souterraines de l'I.A.S.H. choisira les rapports qui seront publiés en priorité.

Les communications arrivant au Secrétariat après le 1<sup>er</sup> juin 1961 ne seront pas présentées.

Grâce à la générosité de l'Unesco, subventions analogues à celles que nous avons déjà réparties pour d'autres Colloques pourront être accordées aux participants.

## B. — U. N. E. S. C. O.

### 1. REPORT OF THE SIXTEENTH SESSION OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON ARID ZONE RESEARCH

PARIS — MAY 1960

#### I. INTRODUCTION

The 16th session of the Advisory Committee on Arid Zone Research was held at Unesco House, Paris on 10 and 11 May 1960.

#### II. REPORTS

The Committee adopted the provisional agenda submitted by the Secretariat.

The Committee heard an oral report on activities since the 15th session and expressed its satisfaction with the work done.

### 1. RAPPORT SUR LA SEIZIEME SESSION DU COMITE CONSULTATIF DE RECHERCHES SUR LA ZONE ARIDE

PARIS - MAI 1960

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Le Comité consultatif de recherches sur la zone aride a tenu sa seizième session à la Maison de l'Unesco, à Paris, les 10 et 11 mai 1960.

#### II. RAPPORTS

Le Comité a adopté l'ordre du jour provisoire présenté par le Secrétariat.

Le Comité a entendu un rapport concernant le travail accompli depuis sa quinzième session, et s'en est déclaré satisfait.

The Committee then considered the reports concerning projects assisted financially.

### II. SYMPOSIA

The Committee reviewed the arrangements made for the General Symposium on Arid Zone Problems which was to follow the fifth session. It approved the procedure proposed by the Secretariat and nominated rapporteurs for the various sessions of the symposium.

The Committee discussed the organization of the Symposium on Climatic Change which is to be organized jointly with WMO in 1961. It noted with satisfaction the arrangements being made by WMO for their contribution. It decided that the emphasis of the programme it had recommended at its fifth session should relate to the period of human history. The Committee further recommended that the symposium might be held in Rome in the autumn of 1961 immediately before or after the meeting of the Commission for Aerology of WMO. It was agreed that participants would be selected jointly by Unesco and WMO and that detailed preparation and organization of the symposium was to be a joint responsibility of the two organizations, with the help of special consultants, if necessary.

The Committee heard a report by Professor L.J. Tison, Secretary-General of the International Association of Scientific Hydrology, on the state of negotiations concerning the Symposium on Methods of Evaluating Resources of Underground Water with emphasis on arid zone problems. In view of the limited financial resources available, the I.A.S.H. had felt that a country in the Mediterranean area would be a suitable location for the symposium. The date had not yet been decided but some time in the autumn of 1961 seemed the most appropriate. The Committee recommended that a grant of \$ 6,000 be made by the I.A.S.H. to assist it in organizing the symposium, especially to facilitate the participation of suitable scientists chosen in consultation with the Secretariat.

Le Comité a examiné les rapports relatifs aux projets qui ont reçu une aide financière de l'Unesco.

### III. COLLOQUES

Le Comité a examiné les dispositions prises pour le colloque de portée générale, concernant les problèmes de la zone aride, qui devait faire suite à sa session. Il a approuvé à cet égard les propositions du Secrétariat, et désigné des rapporteurs pour les différentes séances du colloque.

Le Comité a discuté des préparatifs du Colloque sur les changements climatiques, que l'Unesco doit organiser avec l'OMM en 1961. Il a noté avec satisfaction les dispositions déjà prises par l'OMM. Il a décidé que dans l'étude des questions qu'il a recommandé au cours de sa quinzième session, il conviendrait de s'attacher particulièrement aux temps historiques. Il a en outre recommandé que ce colloque se tienne à Rome pendant l'automne de 1961, immédiatement avant la réunion de la Commission d'aérologie de l'OMM ou tout de suite après. Il a été décidé que les participants seraient choisis conjointement par l'Unesco et par l'OMM et que le soin de préparer et d'organiser en détail les travaux du colloque incomberait aux deux organisations qui agiraient de concert et pourraient au besoin faire appel au concours de consultants spéciaux.

Le Comité a entendu un rapport du professeur L.J. Tison, secrétaire général de l'Association internationale d'hydrologie scientifique, sur l'état actuel des pourparlers relatifs à l'organisation d'un «colloque sur les moyens d'évaluer les ressources en eaux souterraines, étudiées notamment du point de vue des problèmes de la zone aride». Vu la modicité des ressources financières disponibles, l'AIHS a estimé qu'il y aurait intérêt à tenir ce colloque dans un pays de la région méditerranéenne. Bien qu'aucune date ne fût encore fixé, il a semblé que l'automne de 1961 serait l'époque la plus favorable. Le Comité a recommandé qu'une subvention de 6.000 dollars soit accordée à l'AIHS pour l'aider à organiser ce colloque et lui permettre d'y faire participer des hommes de science choisis en consultation avec le Secrétariat de l'Unesco.



#### IV. TRAINING COURSES

The Committee recommended that of the two regional training and refresher courses to be organized each year in 1961-1962, one course each year should be devoted to hydrology and hydrogeology. A regional course on irrigation improvement might be organized jointly with FAO.

In connexion with the subject of training courses, the Committee heard with interest a proposal by FAO for the joint organization of courses with participants from one country only.

The Committee considered a suggestion that a training course on solar energy utilization and saline water conversion be organized. It felt that such training courses were hardly feasible since they would not be concerned with research methods but with description of existing equipment. The Committee therefore recommended instead that the Science Co-operation Offices in the Major Project region organize information lectures on these two topics.

#### V. REQUESTS FOR ASSISTANCE TO RESEARCH

The Committee considered different requests.

The Committee namely considered the request submitted by Dr. H. Boyko, Israël for assistance towards a research project on irrigation with saline water. It recommended that a sum of \$ 2,300 should be granted.

The Committee considered the request submitted by Professor Vassy, Paris, for assistance towards the development of a simple instrument for the recording of absolute humidity and another for recording the ozone content of the air near the soil. It recommended that a grant of \$ 1,300 be made.

The Committee still considered the request for assistance towards a symposium on radiation balance and applications of solar energy submitted by the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics. It recommended that a grant of \$ 2,000 be made to assist in holding this symposium in 1961.

#### IV. COURS DE FORMATION

Le Comité a recommandé que l'un des deux cours régionaux de formation et de perfectionnement qui doivent être organisés par an en 1961-1962 soit consacré à l'hydrologie et à l'hydrogéologie. Un cours régional sur l'amélioration de l'irrigation pourrait être organisé de concert avec la FAO.

A propos des cours de formation, le Comité a pris connaissance avec intérêt d'une proposition de la FAO tendant à l'organisation en commun de cours destinés aux ressortissants d'un seul pays.

Le Comité a examiné une suggestion tendant à l'organisation d'un cours de formation sur l'utilisation de l'énergie solaire et le traitement des eaux salines. Il a estimé difficile de donner suite à cette suggestion, attendu que des cours de ce genre porteraient moins sur les méthodes de recherche que sur le matériel existant. Il a donc recommandé qu'aux endroits et places de ces cours, les postes de coopération scientifique de la zone d'application du Programme organisent des conférences d'information sur les deux questions proposées.

#### V. ASSISTANCE A DES PROJETS DE RECHERCHE

Le Comité a examiné diverses demandes.

Le Comité a notamment examiné la communication par laquelle le Dr H. Boyko (Israël) a sollicité l'aide de l'Unesco pour un projet de recherches concernant l'irrigation au moyen d'eaux salines. Il a recommandé qu'une somme de 2.300 dollars soit affectée à l'exécution de ce projet.

Le Comité a aussi examiné la communication par laquelle le professeur Vassy (Paris) a sollicité l'aide de l'Unesco pour la mise au point de deux instruments simples permettant l'un de mesurer l'humidité absolue, et l'autre de déterminer la teneur de l'air en ozone voisinage du sol.

Le Comité a encore examiné la demande de l'Union géodésique et géophysique internationale, qui a sollicité l'aide de l'Unesco pour un colloque sur l'équilibre radiatif et les applications de l'énergie solaire. Il a recommandé qu'une somme de 2.000 dollars soit affectée en 1961 à l'organisation de ce colloque.



## REGIONAL PROJECTS

The Committee considered some reports. It namely considered the report submitted by the Secretariat concerning a proposed international handbook on irrigation and drainage practices. It noted with satisfaction the progress made in the planning of this book and recommended that Unesco make appropriate funds available as the project proceeded.

## SPECIAL ASSISTANCE TO INSTITUTES

The Committee considered the request for equipment submitted by the Desert Research Institute, Cairo. It recommended that a total grant of \$ 27,000 be made.

The Committee considered the request for equipment submitted by the Government of India on behalf of the Central Arid Zone Research Institute, Jodhpur. It recommended that a grant of \$ 45,000 be made for the purchase of the equipment requested.

The Committee noted with interest a request by the Iranian Government for the dispatch of a short-term mission of arid zone specialists to advise on the development of the Central Arid Zone Research Institute in Iran. It recommended that Unesco meet this request in so far as feasible.

The Committee noted that similar requests would be forthcoming from Pakistan and Sudan and recommended that Unesco dispatch such missions whenever possible.

## ADMINISTRATIVE

The Committee recommended that the Secretariat consider the possibility of holding its next session in conjunction with the Symposium on Climatic Change.

## VI. PROJETS REGIONAUX

Le Comité a examiné divers rapports. Il a notamment examiné un rapport du Secrétariat sur le projet de publication d'un manuel international sur les méthodes d'irrigation et de drainage. Il a noté avec satisfaction le progrès des travaux préparatoires et recommandé que l'Unesco fournisse au fur et à mesure les fonds nécessaires.

## VII. AIDE SPECIALE A DES INSTITUTS

Le Comité a examiné la demande d'aide présentée, en vue de l'achat de matériel, par l'Institut égyptien du Désert, au Caire. Il a recommandé qu'une somme totale de 27.000 dollars soit accordée à cet Institut.

Le Comité a examiné la demande d'aide présentée par le Gouvernement indien en vue de l'achat de matériel destiné au Central Arid Zone Research Institute de Jodhpur. Il a recommandé qu'une somme de 45.000 dollars soit accordée à cet Institut pour l'achat du matériel en question.

Le Comité a pris acte avec intérêt de la communication du Gouvernement iranien demandant l'envoi en Iran d'une mission à court terme composée d'experts qui guideraient de leurs conseils le développement de l'Institut iranien de recherches sur les terres arides. Il a recommandé que l'Unesco donne suite à cette demande dès qu'elle le pourra.

Le Comité a été avisé que des requêtes analogues seraient prochainement présentées par le Pakistan et le Soudan ; il a recommandé que l'Unesco envoie, autant que possible, les missions demandées.

## VIII. QUESTIONS ADMINISTRATIVES

Le Comité a recommandé que le Secrétariat envisage la possibilité de combiner la prochaine session avec le colloque sur les changements climatiques.

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International Geographical Union : Professor Dudley Stamp, United Kingdom.

International Society of Soil Science : Professor Dr. F.A. van Baren, Secretary-General; Netherlands.

Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara : Mr. F. Fournier, Paris.

Union of International Engineering Organizations : Mr. B. de Comminges, Secretary-General, Paris.

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M. M. Batisse, du Département des sciences exactes et naturelles, secrétaire du Comité

M. W. Moller, du Département des sciences exactes et naturelles.

## **2. MAJOR PROJECT ON SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON ARID LANDS**

### **ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON ARID ZONE RESEARCH**

#### **REPORT OF THE SPECIAL REVIEW SESSION**

**PARIS 19-20 MAY 1960**

## **2. PROJET MAJEUR RELATIF AUX RECHERCHES SCIENTIFIQUES SUR LES TERRES ARIDES**

### **COMITE CONSULTATIF DE RECHERCHES SUR LA ZONE ARIDE**

#### **RAPPORT DE LA SESSION RÉCAPITULATIVE SPÉCIALE**

**PARIS, 19-20 MAI 1960**

#### **I. INTRODUCTION**

The Advisory Committee on Arid Zone Research held a special review session on 19 and 20 May 1960 to evaluate past activities of the arid zone programme and particularly of the Major Project on Scientific Research on Arid Lands to determine the need for future international action in the field of arid zone research, and to make recommendations to the Director-General with regard to the future programme of Unesco in this respect.

A number of former members of the Committee had been invited as observers to this session.

Dr. F. Dixey opened the meeting as Chairman of the 16th session and was elected Chairman of the special session.

The Committee had before it the papers and documents presented at the General Symposium on Arid Zone Problems held in Paris from 11 to 18 May as well as the report summarizing the discussion and the conclusions of the various sessions which are given as Annex to this report.

#### **II. GÉNÉRAL ÉVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME**

The Committee wishes to endorse the general opinion voiced during the Symposium that the arid zone programme of Unesco has been a great success within the context of its objectives.

#### **I. INTRODUCTION**

Le Comité consultatif de recherches sur la zone aride a tenu une session récapitulative spéciale, les 19 et 20 mai 1960, pour évaluer les activités passées relevant du programme sur la zone aride et notamment du Projet majeur relatif aux recherches scientifiques sur les terres arides, afin de déterminer à quels besoins devra répondre l'action internationale qu'il y aura lieu d'entreprendre à l'avenir dans ce domaine, et de faire au Directeur général des recommandations quant au futur programme de l'Unesco à cet égard.

Plusieurs anciens membres du Comité avaient été invités à cette session en qualité d'observateurs.

M. F. Dixey a été élu président de la session spéciale.

Le Comité était saisi des mémoires et documents présentés au Colloque général sur les problèmes de la zone aride qui avait lieu à Paris du 11 au 18 mai, ainsi que des rapports résumant les débats et les conclusions des différentes séances (Annexe du présent rapport).

#### **II. EVALUATION GENERALE DU PROGRAMME**

Le Comité tient à confirmer l'opinion générale exprimée au cours du colloque que l'on considère les buts qui lui étaient assignés par le programme de l'Unesco relatif à la zone aride a été une grande réussite.



It is clear that the long-term problems of study and development of arid regions cannot be definitely solved by such relatively short-term efforts as the Major Project and that therefore any appraisal of past effectiveness and work done must start with reference to a set of limited objectives. These have been defined at the 13th session of the Advisory Committee as follows:

To initiate the systematic study of fundamental scientific problems of the arid and semi-arid zones;

To collect and disseminate the scientific information arising from studies on arid zone problems;

To maintain an adequate liaison between the scientists engaged in arid zone research all over the world with a view to facilitating the co-ordination of their results;

To strengthen institutions devoted to research and training in arid zone subjects in the area stretching from North Africa to South Asia;

To promote in the same area the training of scientists and technicians in arid zone subjects;

To create greater awareness of the problems of arid zone research and development in the area through education and public information.

The results obtained so far in the light of these objectives are very satisfactory. The Major Project has paved the way to important new developments in fundamental and applied research.

It is also clear that there has been all over the world, and particularly in the region covered by the Major Project, a considerable awakening of public awareness for arid zone problems.

Finally the activities of Unesco have been developed in very close and fruitful co-operation with the interested international and national scientific bodies and with the United Nations Organizations concerned.

The Committee wishes to stress the importance of the Major Project as an excellent example of integrated approach between many different disciplines and considers that it constitutes a most successful endeavour in

Il est évident que les problèmes que posent, à longue échéance, l'étude et la mise en valeur des régions arides ne sauraient être définitivement résolus par un effort d'une durée relativement brève, comme celle du Projet majeur, et que l'évaluation du travail accompli n'a de sens que par rapport à un ensemble d'objectifs bien délimités. Ceux-ci ont été définis à la treizième session du Comité consultatif dans les termes suivants :

Faire étudier systématiquement les problèmes scientifiques de base qui ont trait aux zones arides et semi-arides ;

Réunir et diffuser la documentation scientifique extraite des études consacrées à ces problèmes ;

Entretenir les relations nécessaires entre tous les hommes de science qui poursuivent des travaux sur la zone aride, en vue de favoriser la coordination des résultats obtenus ;

Développer les institutions de recherche et de formation professionnelle pour les matières qui intéressent la zone aride dans la région qui s'étend de l'Afrique du Nord à l'Asie du Sud ;

Encourager dans la même région la formation de spécialistes et de techniciens des mêmes disciplines ;

Faire prendre plus nettement conscience au public, par l'enseignement et par l'information, des problèmes que posent la recherche et la mise en valeur de la zone aride dans la région.

Compte tenu de ces objectifs, les résultats obtenus jusqu'ici sont très satisfaisants. Le Projet majeur a ouvert la voie à des réalisations nouvelles et importantes en matière de recherche fondamentale et appliquée.

Il est évident aussi que l'on constate dans le monde entier, et surtout dans la région à laquelle s'applique le Projet majeur, un éveil marqué de la conscience publique à l'égard des problèmes de la zone aride.

Enfin, l'Unesco a agi en coopération très étroite et très fructueuse avec les organes scientifiques intéressés — internationaux et nationaux — et avec les organisations du groupe des Nations Unies compétentes à cet égard.

Le Comité tient à souligner la haute valeur d'exemple du Projet majeur en tant qu'effort concerté unissant de nombreuses disciplines différentes, et il y voit une très heureuse entreprise de coopération scientifique inter-



international scientific co-operation having wide educational and cultural implications.

nationale intéressant, à bien des égards, l'éducation et la culture.

### III. CONSIDÉRATION OF FUTURE ACTION

It is obvious that Unesco after having launched the international effort that has been so well described in its report to the Symposium cannot suddenly, at the end of 1962, take no further interest in what happens in the field of scientific research and the training of specialists for the arid and semi-arid regions.

These points were clearly appreciated by the Symposium which was unanimous in pressing for a continuation of the programme of co-ordinated arid zone research on at least the same scale as before, and extended to the whole world and under Unesco's leadership.

Considering the success of the activities carried out and of the methods used in the Major Project, the Committee feels that, from a scientific and efficiency point of view, the best course of action after 1962 would be to maintain within the Unesco framework a substantial programme of activities relating to arid zone research and training extended to all regions of the world affected by aridity, specially Latin America; such a programme would to a large extent be organized along lines similar to those followed so far, although it would take into account the results achieved and experience gained through the Major Project.

At the same time the Committee fully appreciates that the limited resources of Unesco may not permit the allocation for an indefinite period of time and out of the Regular budget of the Organization, of funds and personnel which such a plan would require and which the importance of arid zone problems fully justifies.

The Committee has carefully considered in this connexion the various suggestions made in the working paper prepared by the Secretariat on the future of national and international action for arid zone research.

In broad lines, the Committee suggests that from an administrative point of view the following frame work could be used for a

### III. EXAMEN DE L'ACTION A POURSUIVRE

Il est évident qu'après avoir pris l'initiative de l'effort international si bien décrit dans son rapport au Colloque, l'Unesco pourra se désintéresser soudain - à la fin 1962 - de ce qu'il adviendra de la recherche scientifique et de la formation de spécialistes pour les régions arides et semi-arides.

Les participants au colloque n'ont pas manqué de prendre ces faits en considération et ils ont été unanimes à demander que le programme de recherches coordonné sur la zone aride soit poursuivi au moins à la même échelle qu'auparavant, qu'il soit étendu au monde entier et reste sous la direction de l'Unesco.

Vu le succès des activités poursuivies et des méthodes employées dans l'application du Projet majeur, le Comité estime que du point de vue de la science et de l'efficacité la meilleure solution, à partir de 1962, serait de maintenir dans le cadre de l'Unesco un important programme de recherches et de formation intéressant la zone aride et d'étendre ce programme à toutes les régions du monde affectées par l'aridité, notamment à l'Amérique latine.

D'autre part, le Comité comprend très bien que l'Unesco, dont les ressources sont limitées, risque de ne pas pouvoir prélever sur son budget ordinaire, pendant une période indéfinie, les fonds et le personnel qu'exige un plan de ce genre et que justifie pleinement l'importance des problèmes de la zone aride. Il estime que lorsque le temps sera venu de transformer le programme, cette transformation devrait se faire graduellement et aboutir à une nouvelle phase de coopération scientifique internationale entraînant une expansion appréciable des activités de recherche.

Le Comité a étudié soigneusement, à cet égard, les diverses propositions qui figurent dans le document de travail rédigé par le Secrétariat sur l'action nationale et internationale future touchant les recherches sur la zone aride.

Le Comité estime que, du point de vue administratif, il serait possible de poursuivre

continued international arid zone research effort:

A. — Specific Unesco activities financed under the Unesco Regular programme

B. — Technical Assistance and Special Fund activities of a national or regional character financed under these programmes

C. — International research programme financed by national funds outside the Unesco budget.

#### *A. Specific Unesco activities*

Recognizing that certain of the tasks involved in this international co-operative effort in arid zone research are particularly suited to Unesco's work and possibilities, the Committee recommends that at least the following activities be maintained within the Unesco programme:

(a) The organization of symposia. The distinctive features of the Unesco symposia have been wide geographical participation, high scientific level and a more general approach to problems of arid zone research leading to closer contacts between various scientific disciplines and between fundamental and applied science. Since Unesco, in close co-operation with appropriate international scientific organizations is in a very favourable position to meet all these conditions simultaneously, it is of importance that it should continue to organize symposia in the field of arid zone research.

(b) Organization of national and regional training courses.

(c) The Fellowship programme. The comments just given apply also to this section.

(d) Collection and dissemination of information. The proceedings of symposia should continue to be published. The reviews of research have not yet covered all fields of interest; moreover they will need to be brought up to date as time goes on and revised issues or supplements will become necessary. Unesco is in a central position to ensure the co-operation of the best qualified field scientists from all countries in the preparation of information of this kind.

l'effort international de recherches sur la zone aride selon les grandes lignes suivantes:

A. — Activités particulières à l'Unesco financées au titre du programme ordinaire de l'Unesco.

B. — Activités de caractère national ou régional relevant de l'Assistance technique ou du Fonds spécial et financées au titre de ces programmes.

C. — Programme international de recherches financé au moyen de fonds nationaux extérieurs au budget de l'Unesco.

#### *A. Activités particulières à l'Unesco*

Constatant que certaines des tâches qu'implique cet effort international collectif de recherches sur la zone aride conviennent particulièrement bien à l'activité et aux ressources de l'Unesco, le Comité recommande qu'à tout le moins les activités suivantes soient maintenues au programme de l'Unesco:

(a) Organisation de colloques. Les colloques de l'Unesco se sont distingués par une participation géographique étendue, un niveau scientifique élevé et une façon plus générale d'aborder les problèmes de la recherche sur la zone aride, entraînant des contacts plus étroits entre différentes disciplines scientifiques, comme entre les sciences fondamentales et les sciences appliquées. Puisque l'Unesco, agissant en étroite coopération avec les organisations scientifiques internationales compétentes, est très favorablement placée pour satisfaire à toutes ces conditions, il importe qu'elle continue à organiser des colloques dans le domaine des recherches sur la zone aride.

(b) Organisation de cours de formation à l'échelon national et régional.

(c) Programme de bourses. Les observations qui précèdent valent aussi pour les bourses.

(d) Réunion et diffusion des informations. La publication des actes des colloques doit se poursuivre. Les comptes rendus de recherches n'ont pas encore porté sur tous les domaines d'intérêt; en outre, il faudra les tenir à jour et publier des numéros révisés ou des suppléments. De par sa position centrale, l'Unesco est à même d'assurer la coopération des savants les plus qualifiés de tous les pays pour établir une documentation de ce genre.

Similarly the newsletter will need to continue as an efficient liaison bulletin between the specialists concerned.

(e) Stimulation of national and local co-operating committees.

(f) Assistance to small-scale research projects.

The Committee recommends that all these specifically Unesco activities be extended to cover all the arid zones of the world and considers that the geographical limitation of the Major Project should cease with it.

It is also recommended that the Advisory Committee on Arid Zone Research be maintained in order to give guidance in the preparation and execution of the Unesco programme and of the larger research activities mentioned hereafter. It is the view of the Committee that its statutes and constitution need no modification for these purposes.

#### *B. Technical Assistance and Special Fund*

The Committee endorses the policy adopted by the Secretariat of closer articulation of the Regular programme with the Technical Assistance programme. Technical Assistance in arid zone projects of various Member States has been very successful and should be continued and expanded.

In certain cases Member States may wish to request support from the United Nations Special Fund for the creation of new institutions or the reinforcement of existing institutions devoted to research and training for arid zone development. Assistance from the Special Fund might also be sought for certain types of experimentation programmes or pilot projects.

#### *C. International research programme*

The General Symposium on Arid Zone Problems has shown the need for increased research efforts in many disciplines pertinent to arid zone research. It has resulted in valuable suggestions for research projects which would not only involve several disciplines but would also be of particular interest to groups of Member States in the arid zone.

De même, il faudra poursuivre la publication de «Zone aride», bulletin de liaison très utile pour les spécialistes intéressés.

(e) Encouragement des comités de coopération nationaux et locaux.

(f) Aide aux petits projets de recherche

Le Comité recommande que toutes ces activités particulières à l'Unesco soient étendues à toutes les zones arides du monde. Il estime que les limites géographiques attachées au Projet majeur devraient disparaître quand ce projet prendra fin.

Il est également recommandé que le Comité consultatif de recherches sur la zone aride soit maintenu, afin qu'il puisse guider la préparation et l'exécution du programme de l'Unesco et les activités de recherches plus étendues dont il sera question ci-après. Le Comité estime qu'il n'est pas nécessaire pour cela de modifier ses statuts ni sa constitution.

#### *B. Assistance technique et Fonds spécial*

Le Comité approuve la politique adoptée par le Secrétariat en vue d'articuler plus étroitement le Programme ordinaire et le Programme d'assistance technique. L'assistance technique accordée pour des projets relatifs à la zone aride mis en oeuvre dans divers Etats membres a donné d'excellents résultats et doit être poursuivie et étendue.

Il se peut que dans certains cas des Etats membres souhaitent demander l'appui du Fonds spécial des Nations Unies pour créer de nouvelles institutions ou pour renforcer celles qui se consacrent déjà à la recherche à la formation pour la mise en valeur de la zone aride. L'aide du Fonds spécial peut aussi être demandée pour certains types de programmes d'expérimentation ou de projets pilotes.

#### *C. Programme international de recherche*

Le Colloque général sur les problèmes de la zone aride a fait ressortir la nécessité d'accroître les efforts de recherches dans beaucoup de disciplines aptes à participer à la recherche sur la zone aride. D'utiles suggestions ont été faites à cette occasion en vue d'entreprendre des projets de recherches intéressants à la fois pour plusieurs disciplines et plusieurs Etats membres.



The Committee has not had time to consider with due attention all these suggestions, most of which are given in Annex II. It has nevertheless expressed certain preferences and suggested the following research projects or programmes as particularly suited to international action:

(a) A scientific study of the artesian basins of Northern Africa:

(b) A series of integrated surveys: an integrated survey may be defined as the co-ordinated collection and interpretation of data inter alia on geomorphology, geology, pedology, ecology, microclimate, plant associations and water supplies of a sample area and it should also, where required, include matters related to human occupancy:

(c) Co-ordinated study of plant response to arid environmental factors: the importance of undertaking a co-ordinated programme of co-operative research concerning some urgent problems in plant physiology and experimental ecology is recognized.

Other subjects of importance which could suitably be developed as large-scale international research programmes are certain aspects of the following major fields:

- (d) Arid zone soil biology,
- (e) insect pests and plant diseases
- (f) human diseases linked with irrigation systems,
- (g) human and animal physiology under arid zone conditions.

The Committee is of the opinion that well planned and co-ordinated research projects mentioned above would lead to considerable progress, and it is confident that their significance would call for the raising of the necessary contributions from Member States or from research foundations and similar sources.

It is considered that the Advisory Committee, as now constituted, with observers from the United Nations Organizations and international scientific organizations, would constitute adequate machinery for the initiation and co-ordination of such a research plan, the administration of which could be handled by the Secretariat of Unesco. For the detailed planning and supervision of

bres faisant partie de la zone aride. Le Comité n'a pas eu le temps d'examiner avec toute l'attention désirable ces nombreuses suggestions. Il a néanmoins exprimé certaines préférences et considéré que les projets ou programmes de recherches mentionnés ci-après se prêtaient particulièrement bien à une action internationale:

(a) L'étude scientifique des bassins artésiens de l'Afrique du Nord:

(b) Une série d'études intégrées: On peut définir l'étude intégrée comme le rassemblement et l'interprétation systématiques pour une zone choisie comme échantillon - de données relatives à la géomorphologie, à la géologie, à la pédologie, à l'écologie, au microclimat, aux associations végétales et aux ressources en eau, données auxquelles viendraient s'ajouter, le cas échéant, des renseignements sur l'élément humain.

(c) Des études coordonnées sur les réactions des végétaux en milieu aride: on a reconnu l'importance d'un programme coordonné de recherches communes sur quelques problèmes urgents en matière de physiologie végétale et d'écologie expérimentale.

D'autres grands programmes internationaux de recherches pourraient porter utilement sur certains aspects des domaines suivants:

- (d) biologie des sols de la zone aride;
- (e) insectes nuisibles et maladies des plantes;
- (f) maladies de l'homme liées aux systèmes d'irrigation;
- (g) physiologie humaine et animale dans la zone aride.

Le Comité estime que des projets de recherches bien conçus et coordonnés sur les sujets mentionnés ci-dessus pourraient amener des progrès considérables et il est convaincu qu'en raison de leur importance il serait légitime de faire appel à la contribution des Etats membres ou des fondations de recherches et autres organismes analogues.

Le Comité consultatif, dans sa forme actuelle, avec des observateurs des organisations appartenant au groupe des Nations Unies et des organisations scientifiques internationales, paraît constituer l'organe approprié pour l'application et la coordination d'un plan de recherches de ce genre, dont l'administration pourrait être confiée au Secré-

specific projects, appropriate sub-committees or expert groups would naturally be convened as necessary.

The provision of funds might take two forms:

(a) An international arid zone research fund to which contributions would be made by Member States - and possibly by research foundations and similar bodies - for an agreed general research programme including a number of projects. Within the frame work of this programme, the resources would then be used as the Advisory Committee recommends.

(b) Separate funds for individual research projects provided from specific contributions made by Member States and possibly research foundations and similar bodies.

The Advisory Committee considers that the first possibility would be simpler and more efficient than the second and that the experience acquired and the success achieved in the operation of the Major Project would justify the confidence implied in its adoption. The second method could nevertheless be adopted for well defined large-scale projects.

## ANNEX

### SUMMARY REPORTS ON SESSIONS OF THE GENERAL SYMPOSIUM ON ARID ZONE PROBLEMS

PARIS 11-18 MAY 1960

For each of the main subjects dealt with in the symposium a special report had been prepared and distributed in advance to participants. Chairmen were appointed to preside over the presentation and discussion of these reports. In addition, members of the Advisory Committee were designated as rapporteurs and requested to summarize the main points arising from each discussion. The summaries prepared by the rapporteurs are given below and it is felt that the suggestions made therein

tariat de l'Unesco. Pour la planification détaillée et le contrôle des divers projets, des sous-comités ou des groupes d'experts spécialisés seraient naturellement constitués selon les besoins.

Le financement pourrait se faire sous deux formes différentes:

(a) Un fonds international pour les recherches sur la zone aride, alimenté par les Etats membres - et éventuellement par des fondations de recherches et organes similaires - servant à l'application d'un programme général de recherches accepté par tous et comprenant un certain nombre de projets. Dans le cadre de ce programme les crédits seraient alors utilisés suivant les recommandations du Comité consultatif.

(b) Des fonds distincts pour les différents projets de recherches seraient alimentés par des contributions versées spécialement par les Etats membres et peut-être par des fondations de recherches et organes similaires.

Le Comité consultatif considère que la première de ces deux solutions serait la plus simple et la plus efficace, et l'expérience acquise et les succès obtenus lors de la mise à l'oeuvre du Projet majeur justifieraient la confiance qu'impliquerait son adoption. La seconde méthode pourrait néanmoins être suivie pour de grands projets bien définis.

## ANNEXE

### RAPPORTS SUCCINCTS RELATIFS AUX SEANCES DU COLLOQUE GENERAL SUR LES PROBLEMES DE LA ZONE ARIDE

PARIS, 11-18 MAI 1960

Sur chacun des principaux sujets examinés lors du colloque, un rapport spécial avait été rédigé et distribué à l'avance aux participants. Des présidents ont été appelés à diriger la présentation et la discussion de ces rapports. Enfin, des membres du Comité consultatif ont été désignés comme rapporteurs et chargés de résumer les principaux points qui se sont dégagés des débats. On trouvera ci-après les comptes rendus établis par ces rapporteurs; les suggestions qu'



figurent devraient être très précieuses pour tous ceux qui auront à préparer les activités futures.

## PREMIERE PARTIE - ETAT DES CONNAISSANCES SCIENTIFIQUES

I. Hydrologie des eaux superficielles (y compris la sédimentation), rapport de M. W. B. LANGBEIN. Président: M. L. J. TISON; rapporteur: M. LUNAB. LEOPOLD.

1. Beaucoup de renseignements, de données, de mesures et d'expériences en matière d'hydrologie ont été et sont encore accumulés dans différents pays. Aucun pays ne présentant toute la variété des conditions hydrologiques, les hydrologues ont absolument besoin d'avoir accès aux données et à l'expérience de leurs confrères étrangers. A l'heure actuelle, ce n'est pas possible. Il est recommandé que le Comité consultatif signale à l'OMM cette nécessité et offre toute l'assistance que l'Unesco est en mesure d'apporter. Il faudrait prendre l'initiative d'un effort concret pour rassembler des exemples de renseignements soigneusement choisis en assurant d'une manière ou d'une autre leur uniformité, puis diffuser ces résumés dans divers pays. Il s'agirait, par exemple, de données sur la précipitation, l'écoulement maximal, le volume du ruissellement dans le cas de fortes chutes de pluie, déterminés sur des zones de drainage de moins de 520 kilomètres carrés, et pour lesquels on dispose de renseignements concernant les sols, les pentes, la végétation, les formations géologiques, la zone de drainage, le réseau de drainage et les caractéristiques d'écoulement.

2. Il y aura lieu de faire des recherches sur les façons d'aménager une ressource variable. Actuellement, il y a conflit. On a preconisé l'installation de petits réservoirs, en plus des grands, pour utiliser les eaux superficielles en soudaine et brève abondance. Les inconvénients en sont bien connus: la capacité doit être plus grande, les taux de sédimentation et d'évaporation sont élevés. Cependant, lorsqu'ils sont à une grande échelle, les plans de développement relatifs à l'utilisation des eaux ont tendance à n'encourager que des systèmes d'exploitation qui exigent des ressources

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economist to evolve a model plan involving the essential hydrologic, land-use, and economic factors, pointing the way to sound utilization of a varying resource.

## II. Geology, geomorphology and ground water hydrology, report by Dr. F. DIXEY Chairman: Professor A. DESIO, Rapporteur: Professeur E.S. HILLS

The discussion underlined the importance of the continuation of research along established lines and the need for prosecuting further fundamental studies as outlined in the paper by Dr. Dixey, and laid special emphasis on the following points referred to in the paper:

(i) The need for the study of the water balance, more particularly in the exploitation of limited resources of underground water in defined basins;

(ii) The importance of geomorphological mapping in relation to the understanding of soils, plant ecology and water exploitation;

(iii) The need to make full use of geophysical methods;

(iv) The need to ensure joint action by the scientists of different countries concerned in the study of large underground water basins which extend beyond the limits of any one country, with a view to mutual agreement among the authorities concerned, as to the controls required in the utilization of water.

In particular, in this regard, the symposium recognized the importance of an international study of the artesian basins of Northern Africa, with special reference to the Intercalaire Continental, so as to ensure their optimum development for economic and social progress and mutual agreement on such controls as may be necessary.

assurées. Ainsi l'eau se perd pendant les périodes extrêmement humide et lorsque pendant les périodes sèches les ressources sont insuffisantes pour répondre à tout les besoins.

Il convient d'étudier simultanément les aspects hydrologiques et les aspects socio-économiques du problème. Il est recommandé que l'Unesco donne à un hydro-économiste compétent la possibilité d'élaborer un plan pilote qui tienne compte des facteurs hydrologiques et économiques essentiels - y compris l'utilisation des terres - et qui ouvre la voie à l'utilisation rationnelle d'une ressource variable.

## II. Géologie, géomorphologie et hydrologie des eaux souterraines, rapport par M.F. DIXEY. Président : M.A. DESIO. Rapporteur : M.E.S. HILLS.

Les débats ont fait ressortir la nécessité de continuer les recherches selon les principes établis, et de poursuivre les études fondamentales indiquées dans le mémoire de M. Dixey. On a beaucoup insisté sur les points suivants mentionnés dans le mémoire :

(i) nécessité d'étudier le bilan hydrique, notamment en vue de l'exploitation des ressources limitées en eaux souterraines dans des bassins déterminés ;

(ii) nécessité primordiale de la cartographie géomorphologique pour la connaissance des sols, de l'écologie végétale et l'exploitation des eaux ;

(iii) nécessité d'appliquer pleinement les méthodes de géophysique ;

(iv) nécessité d'assurer l'action conjointe des savants de différents pays s'occupant de l'étude des grands bassins d'eaux souterraines qui s'étendent au-delà des limites d'un pays, en vue d'arriver à des accords entre les autorités intéressées pour assurer les contrôles nécessaires sur l'utilisation de ces eaux.

A cet égard, les participants au colloque ont estimé notamment qu'il serait très utile d'entreprendre, à l'échelon international, l'étude des bassins artésiens de l'Afrique du Nord, particulièrement l'intercalaire continental, pour en assurer la mise en valeur dans les conditions les plus favorables au progrès économique et social, et en vue d'aboutir aux accords qui seraient nécessaires à l'exercice de ces contrôles.

II. Climatology and hydrometeorology with special regard to the arid lands, report by Dr. C.C. WALLEN.  
Chairman: Dr. S.N. NAQVI, Rapporteur: Dr. LUNA B. LEOPOLD.

1. The network of observation stations for climatological purposes is dense where water is plentiful and least dense where water is short. Moreover, observation is more difficult where precipitation is local and infrequent. Not only are more observation necessary but the organization, publication and dissemination should be better co-ordinated. It is recommended that the Advisory Committee convey to WMO the necessity for still further attention to such work. It may be appropriate to make an overall survey of the present situation in so far as the arid zone is concerned, and then devise a joint effort for the establishment of special stations and for the extension of the present network.

2. For knowledge of long-term variations in climatic factors, it is necessary that there be a system of bench-mark stations which are both permanent in time and uninfluenced by urbanization or other man-made influences. Despite the urging by WMO, such permanent stations do not yet exist in all countries. At least a few precipitation and temperature stations, perhaps chosen from suitable stations now in operation might be designated. The records from such stations should be published in a uniform manner. It is recommended that countries interested in arid zone problems implement the recommendations already made by WMO for the establishment of bench-mark stations, and for Unesco to assist in co-ordination leading to publication of those records.

3. As in other fields, climatology relies greatly on publication of records. The publication problem needs additional stress. Many of the research projects now sponsored by Unesco may not necessarily lead to the publication of basic data. Standardization of definitions and of schemes of publication is an international problem in which Unesco can play an important part.

III. Climatologie et hydrométéorologie spécialement appliquées aux terres arides, rapport de M. C. S. WALLEN  
Président : M. S. N. NAQVI; Rapporteur : M. LUNA B. LEOPOLD

1. Le réseau des stations d'observation de climatologie est dense là où l'eau est abondante, et plus clairsemé dans les régions où elle est rare. En outre, l'observation est plus malaisée lorsque les précipitations sont localisées et peu fréquentes. Non seulement les observations doivent être plus nombreuses, mais l'organisation, la publication et la diffusion des données doivent être mieux coordonnées. Il est recommandé que le Comité consultatif signale à l'OMM la nécessité d'attacher plus d'attention encore à ce genre de travail. Il pourrait être opportun de faire une enquête générale sur la situation présente en ce qui concerne la zone aride, puis d'organiser un effort commun pour créer des stations spéciales et étendre le réseau actuel.

2. Pour connaître les variations à long terme des facteurs climatiques, il est indispensable de disposer d'un ensemble de stations de base qui soient permanentes et qui échappent à l'influence de l'urbanisation et autres perturbations d'origine humaine. Malgré les recommandations instantes de l'OMM, ces stations permanentes n'existent pas encore dans tous les pays. Il devrait être possible de désigner au moins quelques stations pour l'étude des précipitations et de la température, en les choisissant éventuellement parmi les stations qui fonctionnent déjà. Les observations de ces stations seraient publiées de manière uniforme. Il est recommandé que les pays qui s'intéressent aux problèmes de la zone aride s'appliquent les recommandations déjà faites par l'OMM en vue de la création de ces stations de référence, et que l'Unesco aide à coordonner la publication de leurs observations.

3. Comme les autres disciplines, la climatologie dépend beaucoup de la publication des observations. Ce problème de la publication doit être souligné à nouveau. Il est à craindre que de nombreux projets de recherches actuellement patronnés par l'Unesco ne conduisent pas nécessairement à la publication de données de base. La normalisation des définitions et des modes de publications est



un problème d'ordre international à l'égard duquel l'Unesco peut jouer un rôle important

IV. Report on microclimatology, report by Professors W.R. VAN WIJK and J. de WILDE.

Chairman: Dr. H. WALTER, Rapporteur: Dr. L.A. RAMDAS.

1. Arid zones, being at present very scantily covered by vegetation, tend to develop the extreme type of microclimate of the «open» space, with conspicuous diurnal variation and gradients of temperature which are both maximum at the «active» ground surface and decrease in intensity rapidly away from the surface. Upward diffusion of water vapour by evaporation by day is compensated during night time by opposite diffusion and invisible or visible (dw) condensation on the surface during the long dry spells.

2. When, as a result of reclamation, the arid zones begin to develop a mantle of vegetation, the microclimate will undergo a considerable and significant transformation with milder temperatures with less diurnal variation, higher humidity and decreased wind in the air layers near the ground; this change in the microclimate will be proportional to the plant density and height and most accentuated when the plant community forms a canopy at the top which will then behave as the «active» surface.

When this change sets in, the climate near the ground will no doubt become more congenial to all living beings, but there is at the same time the grave risk of plant pests and diseases also developing and assuming sometimes epidemic proportions.

So it is essential that microclimatologists work in very close co-operation with biologists engaged in the study of the incidence, intensity and control of such adverse pests and diseases.

3. The development of methods of conservation and most economic use of the scanty water resources in the arid zone for maximizing food production and techniques for assessing the factors controlling the water balance at the ground assume a very special importance. There is urgent need, particularly,

IV. Rapport sur la microclimatologie. Rapport de MM. W.R. VAN WIJK et J. de WILDE

Président : M. H. WALTER ; Rapporteur : M. L.A. RAMDAS

1. Les régions arides n'étant actuellement couvertes que d'une végétation très rare, on y trouve généralement le type extrême du microclimat des espaces ouverts avec de très fortes variations diurnes et des gradients de température qui sont maximums à la surface «active» du sol et diminuent rapidement en intensité à partir de la surface. La diffusion ascendante de la vapeur d'eau par évaporation pendant le jour est compensée, pendant la nuit, par une diffusion en sens opposé et une condensation invisible ou visible à la surface pendant les longues périodes de sécheresse.

2. Quand, par suite de la remise en état des terres, les zones arides commencent à se couvrir d'un manteau de végétation, le microclimat subit une transformation considérable et significative, caractérisée par des températures plus douces, avec des variations diurnes moins prononcées, une plus grande humidité, et des vents moins forts dans les couches d'air proches du sol ; cette évolution du microclimat est d'autant plus marquée que la couverture est plus dense et plus haute, et elle atteint son maximum lorsque le sommet de la population végétale forme comme un tapis, qui se comporte alors comme une surface «active».

Lorsque ce changement se produira, le climat près du sol deviendra sans doute plus propice aux êtres vivants, mais il est à craindre que les maladies et les parasites ne se développent en même temps, en prenant parfois les proportions d'une épidémie.

Il est donc indispensable que les microclimatologistes travaillent en très étroite collaboration avec les biologistes qui étudient l'incidence et l'intensité de ce danger, et les moyens de lutter contre les parasites et les maladies.

3. Il importe particulièrement de mettre au point des méthodes pour conserver et utiliser au mieux les rares ressources en eau.

for improving the precision in the estimation of «natural» evaporation and evapotranspiration.

Both the theoretical and the practical or experimental approaches for securing such valid estimates, therefore, deserve active encouragement from Unesco, WMO and FAO.

4. There are several hierarchies of «microclimate», ranging from the «micro-micro» variations of the smallest insect environment to the variations within larger spaces such as occur within plant or forest communities, buildings, cities, or around hillocks, hills, etc. The actual scope of the term «micro» should, therefore, be clear in every particular context.

5. Care is necessary to ensure that in microclimatic researches the experimental techniques are adequate for the particular purposes in view, it being equally essential to avoid over-simplification of techniques on the one hand as over-instrumentation on the other.

V. Arid zone soils - A study of their formation, characteristics, utilization and conservation, report by Dr. GEORGES AUBERT.

Chairman: Dr. H. GREENE; Rapporteur: Dr. ABDUL HAFIZ.

VI. Salt-affected soils and plants, report by Dr. L. BERNSTEIN.

Chairman: Professor A.K. KHUDAIRI; Rapporteur: Dr. ABDUL HAFIZ.

VII. Plant physiology and arid zone research, report by Professor M. EVENARI.

Chairman: Mr. N. EL GHORFI; Rapporteur: Professor P. CHOUARD.

VIII. Plant ecology, reports by Professors G. LEMEE and L. EMBERGER.

Chairman: Dr. B.T. DICKSON; Rapporteur: Professor P. CHOUARD.

de la zone aride, afin de porter au maximum la production des denrées alimentaires, ainsi que des techniques permettant d'évaluer les éléments qui déterminent le bilan hydrique au sol. Il est particulièrement urgent de pouvoir évaluer de façon plus précise l'évaporation et l'évapo-transpiration «naturelles».

Les méthodes tant théoriques que pratiques ou expérimentales visant à obtenir des évaluations suffisamment précises méritent donc d'être activement encouragées par l'Unesco, l'OMM et la FAO.

4. Il existe plusieurs degrés de «micro-climats», depuis les variations extrêmement limitées intéressant un petit peuplement d'insectes jusqu'aux variations que l'on observe dans les espaces plus étendus, comme celles qui se produisent dans une formation végétale ou forestière, dans les bâtiments et les villes, ou autour des collines, des montagnes etc. La portée du terme «microclimat» doit donc être précisée dans chaque cas.

5. Il faut s'assurer que, dans les recherches microclimatiques, les techniques d'expérimentation sont adaptées aux buts à atteindre; on évitera aussi bien la simplification excessive des techniques que le suréquipement.

V. Pédologie de la zone aride. Etude de la formation des sols, de leurs caractéristiques, de leur utilisation et de leur conservation. Rapport de M. Georges AUBERT

Président : M. H. GREENE; Rapporteur : M. ABDUL HAFIZ

VI. Problèmes phytologiques et pédologiques relatifs à la salinité, rapport de M. BERNSTEIN.

Président : M. A.K. KHUDAIRI; Rapporteur : M. ABDUL HAFIZ

VII. Physiologie végétale et recherches sur la zone aride, rapport de M. EVENARI

Président : M. N. EL GHORFI; Rapporteur : M. P. CHOUARD

VIII. Ecologie végétale, rapports de MM. G. LEMEE et L. EMBERGER

Président : M. B.T. DICKSON; Rapporteur : M. P. CHOUARD



IV. Applications of human and animal physiology and ecology to arid zone problems, report by Dr. D.H.K. LEE.  
Chairman: Professor J. MAGNES; Rapporteur: Professor M. M. RAMADAN.

X. Development of arid lands and its ecological effects on their insect fauna, report by Dr. B.P. UVAROV.  
Chairman: Professor J. MAGNES; Rapporteur: Professor M.M. RAMADAN.

XI. Local energy sources, reports by Mr. E.W. GOLDING and Dr. H. TABOR.  
Chairman: Dr. S.R. MEEHRA; Rapporteur: Dr. L.A. RAMDAS.

Discussions on wind and solar energy brought out again very clearly an important point (stressed at the New Delhi Symposium), viz., that the proper policy is to treat wind solar and fuel energies as supplementary to each other and an integrated approach on this line is essential to solve the problem of power availability in rural areas.

#### *A. Energy from wind and local fuels*

1. Some parts of the arid zones have wind regimes that may be utilized with advantage. Unesco should disseminate the results of wind power research in some of the advanced countries amongst the Desert Research Institutes and National Committees in the countries of the arid zones and thus encourage the use of wind energy where advisable.

2. Organizations concerned in the arid zones should, if they have not already done so, carry out wind surveys so as to map the areas where such energy may be available to a sufficient extent and to point out favourable locations therein (e.g. hill-tops, gaps in hill ranges, etc., where the wind may be much stronger than in adjoining areas).

IX. Applications de la physiologie et de l'écologie humaines et animales aux problèmes de la zone aride, rapport de M. D.H.K. LEE  
Président : M. J. MAGNES; Rapporteur : M. M.M. RAMADAN

X. La mise en valeur des terres arides et ses effets écologiques sur les insectes, rapport de M. B.P. UVAROV  
Président : M. J. MAGNES; Rapporteur : M. M.M. RAMADAN

XI. Sources locales d'énergie, rapports de MM. E.W. GOLDING et H. TABOR  
Président : M. S.R. MEHRA; Rapporteur : M. L.A. RAMDAS

Les débats sur l'énergie éolienne et solaire ont fait une fois de plus ressortir très clairement un point important (souligné au Colloque de New Delhi) à savoir qu'il faut considérer comme complémentaires les énergies éolienne et solaire, et celle qui émane d'un combustible; et qu'il est indispensable de coordonner les efforts pour résoudre le problème de l'énergie dans les régions rurales.

#### *A. Energie éolienne et combustibles locaux*

1. Dans certaines parties des zones arides le régime des vents peut être utilisé avec profit. L'Unesco devrait diffuser les résultats des recherches entreprises dans quelques pays avancés sur l'énergie éolienne en les communiquant aux Instituts de recherches sur le désert et aux Comités nationaux des pays de la zone aride; l'emploi de l'énergie éolienne sera ainsi encouragé là où il peut être utile.

2. Les organisations qui s'intéressent aux régions arides devraient, si elles ne l'ont pas encore fait, étudier les régimes des vents en vue d'établir pour ces régions des cartes indiquant les zones où cette énergie pourrait atteindre un degré suffisant et précisant quels seraient les points les plus favorables (sommets des collines, cols dans les chaînes de montagnes, etc. où le vent peut être beaucoup plus fort qu'ailleurs).

3. Unesco may encourage further experimental projects on utilization until the stage is reached when manufacturers can undertake the manufacture of those types of installations that promise to be most useful.

#### A. Solar energy

1. To encourage further break-throughs in solar energy utilization, Unesco should give every possible encouragement to theoretical and experimental research that may accelerate further progress, as for example, in the direct conversion of solar energy into electrical power.

2. Besides water heating and solar cooking, refrigeration and air-conditioning by using solar energy hold much promise for the future and research on this problem of special significance to hot and arid zones.

3. The stage has arrived where market research by economist and social scientists to determine what is needed, whether and where acceptable, optimum sizes of equipment and likely volume of business, is needed on a world-wide basis. Research on these lines should be encouraged.

4. The Unesco-WMO programme for collection and processing of radiation data on a world-wide basis should continue.

#### XI. Saline water conversion, report by Dr. E.D. HOWE.

Chairman: Dr. S.R. MEEHRA, Rapporteur: Dr. L.A. RAMDAS.

1. The use of solar water distillers for providing drinking water in very arid zones has already been stressed. Research on method of increasing the efficiency of such apparatus should be encouraged.

3. L'Unesco pourrait encourager de nouveaux projets expérimentaux sur l'utilisation de l'énergie éolienne, afin d'en arriver au stade où il sera possible d'entreprendre la fabrication industrielle des types d'installations paraissant les mieux conçus.

#### B. Energie solaire

1. Pour contribuer à ouvrir de nouvelles voies dans le domaine de l'utilisation de l'énergie solaire, l'Unesco devrait encourager le plus possible la recherche théorique et expérimentale pouvant amener de nouveaux progrès comme, par exemple, la conversion directe de l'énergie solaire en énergie électrique.

2. Outre son utilisation pour chauffer l'eau et cuire les aliments, l'énergie solaire paraît offrir d'intéressantes possibilités pour la réfrigération et la climatisation, et les recherches sur ce problème prennent une importance particulière dans les régions chaudes et arides.

3. On a atteint le stade où des études de marché doivent être entreprises à l'échelle mondiale : des économistes et des sociologues devront déterminer quels sont les besoins, à quelles conditions et en quels lieux l'énergie solaire paraît être utilisable, quelles sont les dimensions les meilleures à adopter pour le matériel, quel sera le volume probable des transactions, etc. Il convient d'encourager la recherche dans ces différentes directions.

4. Le programme Unesco-OMM visant à réunir et à exploiter les données relatives aux radiations doit être poursuivi sur une base mondiale.

#### XII. Déminéralisation des eaux salines, rapport de M. E.D. HOWE

Président : M. S.R. MEHRA ; Rapporteur : M. L.A. RAMDAS

1. L'emploi des distillateurs solaires pour la fourniture d'eau potable dans les zones très arides a toujours été préconisé. Des recherches sur les méthodes visant à accroître l'efficacité de ces appareils devraient être encouragées.

2. Electrodialysis has been demonstrated as a successful technique for providing drinkingwater for men and animals on an economic basis at the subsistence level. Further research on membranes and cell designs to further increase the efficiency of desalinization by this process deserves urgent encouragement.

3. Research on other techniques such as: (a) freezing separation; (b) reversed osmosis; (c) solvent extraction and (d) other possible methods of desalinization should also be encouraged, as water for drinking and irrigation purposes is the most vital problem for the arid zones of the earth.

4. Unesco should also arrange for the demonstration of the various desalinization techniques so far developed in the countries constituting the arid zones. A contest could be organized for the design of a small-scale demineralization equipment easily transportable which could be used for drinking needs of men and animals.

2. L'électrodialyse est une technique qui a donné de bons résultats pour la fourniture d'eau potable aux humains et aux animaux dans des conditions rentables au niveau du minimum physiologique. Il faudrait encourager d'urgence la recherche sur les membranes et les cellules pour augmenter l'efficacité de la déminéralisation par ce procédé.

3. Les recherches sur d'autres techniques telles que : (a) la séparation par congélation (b) par pression osmotique inversée, (c) l'extraction au moyen de solvants, et (d) toute autre méthode possible de déminéralisation doivent aussi être encouragées, car le problème de l'eau, tant pour la consommation que pour l'irrigation, est le plus vital qui se pose dans les régions arides.

4. L'Unesco devrait aussi faire procéder dans les pays qui appartiennent aux zones arides, à des démonstrations portant sur les différentes techniques de déminéralisation connues à ce jour. On pourrait organiser un concours pour la réalisation d'un appareil de déminéralisation de petite dimension, aisément transportable et pouvant être utilisé pour les besoins en eau potable de l'homme et des animaux.

## PART 2 — ACTION UNDERTAKEN

Reports of activities by Unesco, the UN Agencies, Member States and International Scientific Organizations.

Chairman: Professor Gilbert F. WHITE, Rapporteur Dr. F. DIXEY.

National reports on arid zone activities prepared at the request of the Director-General of Unesco were received and distributed for information to the symposium from the following Member States in the Major Project area: India, Iran, Iraq, Morocco, Pakistan, Sudan and the United Arab Republic. Arid zone activities reports were distributed and presented from the following international scientific organizations: International Geographical Union, International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage, International Union for Geodesy and Geophysics, International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Re-

## DEUXIEME PARTIE - ACTION ENTREPRISE

Rapports sur les activités entreprises par l'Unesco, les autres organisations du groupe des Nations Unies, les Etats membres et les organisations scientifiques internationales. Président : M. Gilbert F. WHITE ; Rapporteur : M. F. DIXEY

Des rapports nationaux sur les activités relatives à la zone aride, rédigés à la demande du Directeur général de l'Unesco, ont été adressés par plusieurs Etats membres situés dans la zone d'application du Projet majeur : Inde, Irak, Iran, Maroc, Pakistan, République arabe unie et Soudan. Ces rapports ont été distribués pour l'information des participants au colloque. Les organisations scientifiques internationales ci-après citées ont également fait parvenir et distribuer des rapports sur leurs activités dans la zone aride : Union géographique internationale, Commission internationale d'irrigation et drainage, Union géodésique et géophysique.



sources and Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara. Similar reports prepared by the interested United Nations Agencies, namely, the Water Resources Development Centre of the United Nations, FAO, WHO and WMO were also distributed and presented.

The comprehensive report prepared by Unesco covering the activities undertaken since the beginning of the arid zone programme gave rise to a good discussion in which 8 speakers took part, expressing views from most of the Major Project areas and from several Latin American countries.

The speakers paid high tribute to the activities and achievements of the arid zone programme, and particularly to the work of Mr. Batisse and his staff, and the view that the programme should be continued in some suitable form and extended to other areas was unanimously expressed.

The view was strongly urged that in the short time and with the limited funds available, substantial results had been achieved.

Many suggestions were made for consideration in the future among which the following should be mentioned:

1. More mapping, particularly geomorphological, should be undertaken.
2. Greatly increased provision should be made for the collection of fundamental and reliable data, (especially of precipitation) so that research efforts can be based on solid grounds.
3. Studies of evapotranspiration, reduction of evaporation, water balance, and continental erosion should be emphasized.
4. Ecological work should be extended, especially in areas not yet greatly affected by man, as on the southern fringes of the Sahara, and the ecological effects of land use in relation to aridity.
5. Further help and encouragement should be given to National Committees.

internationale, Union internationale pour la conservation de la nature et de ses ressources, et Commission de coopération technique en Afrique au sud du Sahara. Des rapports du même genre ont été distribués et présentés par différentes institutions des Nations Unies, à savoir : le Centre des Nations Unies pour le développement des ressources hydrauliques, la FAO, l'OMS et l'OMM. Le rapport présenté par l'Unesco sur l'ensemble des activités entreprises depuis le début de la mise en oeuvre du programme relatif à la zone aride a donné lieu à des débats intéressants, auxquels ont participé dix-huit orateurs exprimant les points de vue de la plupart des régions d'application du Projet majeur et de plusieurs pays d'Amérique latine.

Les orateurs ont rendu hommage aux activités et aux réalisations du programme de la zone aride et notamment au travail accompli par M. Batisse et son équipe. Ils ont été unanimes à déclarer que le programme devait être poursuivi sous une forme appropriée et étendu à d'autres régions.

On a particulièrement mis en relief le fait que des résultats considérables ont été obtenus dans un laps de temps très court et avec des fonds limités.

De nombreuses suggestions ont été faites pour l'avenir, parmi lesquelles il convient de mentionner les suivantes :

1. Intensifier les travaux cartographiques, notamment les levés géomorphologiques.
2. Augmenter beaucoup les moyens permettant de recueillir des données fondamentales et sûres (notamment en ce qui concerne la précipitation) afin que les efforts de recherches puissent se fonder sur des bases solides.
3. Renforcer les études sur l'évapotranspiration, la réduction de l'évaporation, le bilan hydrique et l'érosion continentale.
4. Etendre les travaux sur l'écologie, surtout dans les régions encore peu marquées par l'homme, comme la frange méridionale du Sahara, et étudier les effets écologiques de l'utilisation des terres dans leurs rapports avec l'aridité.
5. Continuer à aider et à encourager les Comités nationaux.



6. A guide book for the practical application of new knowledge should be prepared. The newsletter which was highly commended could include abstracts of significant results obtained.

6. Rédiger un manuel sur l'application pratique des connaissances nouvelles. La publication «Zone aride, Nouvelles du Programme majeur de l'Unesco», très appréciée, pourra comprendre des analyses des résultats importants déjà obtenus.

#### PART 3 — SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPMENT

I. Nomadism in relation to grazing resources, reports by Professor R.E. CAPOTREY, Dr. MOHAMMED AWAD, Dr. F. BARTH, Dr. R.O. WHYTE.  
Chairman: Professor HASSAN AWAD, Rapporteur: Dr. ABDUL HAFIZ.

II. Alternative uses of limited water supplies, reports by Dr. L. LEOPOLD, Mr. G. DROUHIN, Dr. YOUSSEF SIMAIKA, Professor A.N. ASKOCHENSKY, Professor G. WHITE.  
Chairman: Professor A.H. BEHNIA, Rapporteur: Dr. LUNA B. LEOPOLD.

III. Public awareness and the educational problem, reports by Dr. A.G. ASGHAR, Professor D. WEINTRAUB, M.J. PETIT and Dr. Z. BEHRAVESH (provisional report).  
Chairman: M.A. BAYOUMI, Rapporteur, Professor E.S. HILLS.

#### PART 4 — FUTURE OF ARID ZONE RESEARCH

The future of national and international action for arid zone research.

Chairman: Mr. P. PIGANIOL, Rapporteur: Dr. F. DIXEY.

Speakers were unanimous in calling for a continuation of arid zone research under Unesco's leadership, and in expressing satisfaction with what had been achieved so far. Many thought that every effort should be made to increase rather than reduce the funds available and to maintain the programme with a higher level of activity extended to the whole world.

#### TROISIEME PARTIE - PROBLEMES SOCIO-ECONOMIQUES DE DEVELOPPEMENT

I. Le nomadisme dans ses rapports avec les ressources pastorales : rapports de MM. R.E. CAPOTREY, MOHAMMED AWAD, BARTH et R.O. WHYTE  
Président : M. HASSAN AWAD ; Rapporteur : M. ABDUL HAFIZ

II. Diverses utilisations possibles de ressources en eau limitées : rapports de MM. L. LEOPOLD, G. DROUHIN, YOUSSEF SIMAIKA, A.N. ASKOCHENSKY et G. WHITE  
Président : M. A. H. BEHNIA ; Rapporteur : LUNA B. LEOPOLD

III. L'attitude de la population et le problème de l'éducation, rapports de MM. A. ASGHAR, D. WEINTRAUB, J. PETIT et Z. BEHRAVESH (rapport provisoire)  
Président : M. A. BAYOUMI ; Rapporteur : M. E.S. HILLS

#### QUATRIEME PARTIE - L'AVENIR DES RECHERCHES SUR LA ZONE ARIDE

Perspectives d'avenir en matière de recherches sur la zone aride : action nationale et internationale.

Président : M. P. PIGANIOL ; Rapporteur : M. F. DIXEY

Les orateurs ont été unanimes à demander la poursuite des recherches sur la zone aride sous la direction de l'Unesco, et à primer leur satisfaction devant les résultats obtenus jusqu'ici. Beaucoup ont déclaré qu'il fallait s'efforcer d'augmenter plutôt que réduire les fonds disponibles, et de poursuivre le programme en élevant le niveau des activités et en l'étendant au monde entier.

# PUBLICATIONS DE L'A. I. H. S.

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## I. COMPTES-RENDUS ET RAPPORTS

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Publ. n° 6 — Rapports sur l'état de l'hydrologie	25	»
Publ. n° 7 — Id.	25	»
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### *Assemblée d'Oslo 1948*

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### *Assemblée de Bruxelles 1951*

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### *Assemblée de Rome 1954*

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### *Symposia Darcy — Dijon 1956*

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### Assemblée de Toronto 1957

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### Assemblée de Helsinki 1960

Publ. n° 51 — Eaux de surface	350	
Publ. n° 52 — Eaux souterraines	350	»
Publ. n° 53 — Erosion continentale, Précipitation, Evaporation sous presse	id.	»
Publ. n° 54 — Neiges et Glaces	id.	»

## II. BIBLIOGRAPHIE HYDROLOGIQUE

1934 (Egypte, France, Indes, Italie, Lettonie, Maroc, Pays Baltes, Roumanie, Suède, Suisse, Tchécoslovaquie, Tunisie, Pologne — en 1 vol.

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### III. BULLETIN DE L'ASSOCIATION D'HYDROLOGIE

Ce bulletin paraît quatre fois l'an depuis 1956. Il comprend une partie réservée à l'information et une partie scientifique.

Prix de l'abonnement : 250 FB.

### IV. PUBLICATIONS DIVERSES

1. Quelques études présentées à Washington 1939	50 F Belges
2. Etudes présentées à la Conférence de la Table Ronde sur la possibilité d'utilisation des laboratoires d'hydraulique pour les recherches hydrologiques	75 »
3. Crues de 1954 — 1 publ. autrichienne	40 »
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